The Nation

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DIEDRICH KNICKERBOCKER JUVENTUS—Bacon was right, Socrates. But my reading has been more for purposes of amusement rather than the acquisition of knowledge.

SOCRATES M.—Ah? I thought the youth of this city took their amusements in other forms.

D. K. J.—They do; but one's fancy, this sunny weather, turns on itself, so to speak, and the indolence of the body may be compensated for by the activity of the imagination.

S. M.—Ha! Ha! My good Knickerbocker, you are learning, indeed! Well, know, my friend, that I, too, have, for the first time in my life, been reading books—those modern productions of literature, called novels, and I confess it, though not without some reluctance, that two of them have pleased me mightily. I took them with me to the groves of the Adirondacks.

D. K. J.—Indeed, Socrates. You would place me under a deep obligation if you would name them. I know that what pleases you must have in it of the vital essence of wit and wisdom.

S. M.—Well! well! But these books have sound qualities in them. The one entitled "SENATOR NORTH," by Gertrude Atherton, (a woman, I understand, who holds a high place among the writers of your country,) shows a rare insight into life and draws a capital picture of the political activities of the Senate at Washington. The other, by Henry Harland, is called "THE CARDINAL'S SNUFFBOX." It is a gracious piece of literary craftsmanship, and, in my opinion, is destined to take its place in the front rank of modern literary work. I commend these books to your careful reading, good Diedrich.

D. K. J.—Thanks, Socrates; I am much beholden to you.

S. M.—You are welcome. You can buy them at any bookseller's. They are published by Mr. JOHN LANE, 251 Fifth Avenue, New York.

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The Week.

Secretary Hay has done well to make public the note of our Government to the other Powers, defining the attitude of the United States in the Chinese difficulty. This is "the new diplomacy" in one of its happier moments—publishing diplomatic correspondence, not in order to browbeat or exasperate a country with which we are in controversy, but for the purpose of taking the people and the whole world into confidence, with the object of solidifying support of a wise and humane and unselfish policy. That Mr. Hay's frankness will have such a conciliating effect we are justified in hoping. Already a favoring echo comes from England, with whose Chinese policy, so far as announced, our own is in substantial accord. It may be summed up in few words. First, protection of our citizens in China; second, hearty support of any native government which stands for law and order; third, indemnity for damage done, and guarantees against renewal of the outrages; fourth, withdrawal of foreign forces and the preservation of a "Chinese territorial and administrative entity"—to quote Mr. Hay. The policy is "hands on," to rescue and secure Americans; then at once and as resolutely, "hands off!" The hope of raising up an ally from within China is the one to which we must steadily cling. It is only common sense to look to a native government to do the immense and arduous work of policing the country. Intervening Powers could not do it one-tenth as well, or except at a cost ten times as great. The chief aim of intervention should be to find or create some local authority capable at once of fulfilling international obligations and maintaining domestic order. Mr. Hay clearly commits our Government to such a policy. In doing so he simply reaffirms the historic American position.

The Powers profess to have been entirely ignorant of the extent to which China had supplied herself with European-made guns and ammunition. Now, in the outburst of wisdom that follows the event, it is gravely proposed that the civilized nations of the world, which have brought to perfection the instruments of destruction, shall monopolize their use, and prohibit their sale to barbarians—meaning in this case those peoples of the earth less able to kill than we are. If Boers and Chinamen and Indians, Asiatic and American, can be kept from owning rifles and cannon, they will be less dangerous to the nations that want their trade or their land. But what are guns made for if not to sell? Has not German industry been reaping the benefit of the trade which all the Powers have been so anxious to develop with China? China did not wish it; we forced her ports, and she opened her country to us on any large scale only after the war with Japan revealed both to her and to the outside world how hopeless would be any attempt at resistance. Strange that we should be surprised when, compelled at the cannon's mouth to buy, she elected to buy cannon! The disconcerting promptness of his choice shows how quick was the despised Celestial to strengthen the weakest point in his civilization. But if we had let him alone, he never would have bought Mausers. If we are to develop China, we must expect to see her armed. England, with her firm grip on India, has found it impossible to keep the barbarous mountain tribes of the remote interior from supplying themselves with modern rifles. No measures which the European governments can adopt will avail to keep China from buying of the manufacturers through third parties, as long as China remains an independent Power.

So many predictions about China have been falsified that, in the attempt to save at least one prophet's reputation, there has been a revival of the late C. H. Pearson's theory of the Yellow Peril to civilization. But his idea was almost purely that of an industrial peril. Skilled and cheap Chinese and Japanese labor was to defy and destroy all competitors. Yet Pearson, though in general a neglected prophet, had one distinguished disciple. The Emperor William was so impressed in 1895 with the Yellow Peril that he turned political cartoonist for the nonce. His design, which was worked out in colors by Knackfuss, and was largely circulated in Germany, represented the civilized nations, led by the Archangel Michael, preparing to resist a Chinese dragon which was seen approaching. Even this imperial forecast, however, may be cited as first-class prophecy only in one respect—the alliance of the Powers against China. As for William's Chinese dragon, it was not a furious monster content to crunch the bones of its victims in its own lair or "sphere of influence," but an aggressive beast roaming forth in search of prey. This the Chinese dragon of real life is not. Whatever else may be said of the horrible excesses of the Chinese insurrectionists, they are undoubtedly intended as a kind of defence of Chinese independence against foreigners—not a wanton going outside to attack Europe.

In his speech accepting his nomination, President McKinley assured us that the organized forces which had been misled into rebellion in the Philippines were dispersed. Gen. MacArthur, however, maintains that 2,300 soldiers are all that he can spare for the Chinese service, and a demand for more soldiers is reported from every department. Gen. Lawton's estimate of 100,000 troops as necessary to maintain our supremacy was evidently none too large. The present force is too small to garrison more than half the principal towns, and in some of the important islands only the seaports are occupied. Very disquieting accounts are received from Mindanao and the Sulu Islands. Officers best acquainted with the conditions say that war with the Moros is inevitable. The island of Mindanao is nearly as large as Luzon, and it is ruled by two regiments, scattered along the coast in detachments hundreds of miles apart. When the inhabitants suspend the rapturous contemplation of American sovereignty in which Mr. McKinley describes them as engaged, and attack our troops, we must either evacuate or send reinforcements. Where are they to be procured? Every man that can be spared from this country and the West Indies will be needed in China, and unless President McKinley is prepared to call Congress together and have the army increased, it seems probable that we shall have to relinquish our "sovereignty" over a large part of the Philippines.

It has been pointed out from the beginning by those who knew the situation in the island of Luzon, that the crucial question would be that of the religious orders. No one will pretend that this question is one which concerns the American people; but no one will deny that our Government will handle it with an eye to the Catholic vote in this country. While Roman Catholics do not vote as a class, our politicians are very well aware that it is a serious matter to incur the ill-will of their Church. Should that Church take a decided position in favor of a particular policy toward the Friars of Luzon, it is certain that our Government would hesitate to antagonize it. Hence the report that Archbishop Chappelle has declared himself on the matter is important. He is represented as holding that the Filipinos owe to the monastic orders all the education and civilization which they possess; that it would be unjust to these orders to expel them or deprive them of their estates; that it would be impossible to replace them with other priests; and that the hostility to them is only on the part of those who covet their property. How far these opinions express the views of the higher clergy of the

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Roman Church we cannot tell. The history of that Church, however, affords abundant evidence that its silence concerning the Philippine situation is no sign of ignorance or indifference. When the proper time comes, we shall find that the Church will have a perfectly well-defined policy to suggest to our Government; and we shall find that our Government will treat suggestions from that quarter with deference. The Filipinos may be assured that their own preferences in this matter will be treated as quite as subordinate to our higher ends as have been their ill-advised claims to independence and self-government.

Carl Schurz has always shown a remarkable talent for clear analysis and forcible exposition, and he is at his best in the letter on the Philippine situation which was printed in the *Herald* of Saturday. Mr. Schurz's paper is in form an answer to a recent defence of our policy in the Philippines by Senator Foraker of Ohio, but it serves also as the most searching indictment of that policy which has yet been framed. Its peculiar value consists in the fact that it brings together a large number of official statements which show the virtual alliance that existed between our forces and those of Aguinaldo for months after the destruction of the Spanish fleet, and thus demonstrates the breach of moral obligations on our part that is the worst feature of the whole unhappy business. Mr. Schurz is equally unanswerable when he urges that the Philippine Islands might be pacified any day by the application of the same principles there that we are applying in Cuba. The moral side of the question has never before been so cogently put.

Some facts regarding the adoption of the silver plank in the Kansas City platform have leaked out since the Convention adjourned. It has been made known by returning delegates that the policy actually adopted was the subject of much anxious consideration, and that the process of reasoning which led to its adoption was, in substance, that nearly all the persons who would oppose Mr. Bryan on account of his position in regard to silver, would oppose him even if there were no reference to the subject in the platform; that all who would oppose him on account of a new and explicit silver plank in the platform, would do so even if there were only a reaffirmation of the Chicago platform in general terms; while a large number of Populists and Silver Republicans, perhaps a million in the whole country, would abandon Mr. Bryan if there were any, even the smallest, sign of dodging the issue. Upon a deliberate calculation of the chances, therefore, it was deemed the safest course to make a bold and explicit declaration in favor of 16 to 1. It was Mr. Bryan's conviction, derived from many meetings he has addressed during the past four years, that the bulk of his supporters are still in earnest to bring about the free coinage of silver "at the present legal ratio," and that in the Democratic party they greatly outnumber those who voted for Palmer and Buckner four years ago, or who voted for McKinley direct. It was believed also at Kansas City that the Republican opponents of Imperialism, such men as ex-Gov. Boutwell, Carl Schurz, and ex-Senator Henderson, would consider that question the one of overwhelming importance in the campaign, and would vote for Bryan regardless of any other issue. To meet their views the clause was added at the last moment: "We regard it [Imperialism] as the paramount issue of the campaign."

The absorption of Democracy into Populism is rapidly becoming complete. Democratic conventions were held in South Dakota and Nebraska last week. In the former State the only Democrats whose names will appear on the ticket are the candidates for two Presidential electors and a few minor offices. The two nominees for Representatives in Congress, Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Attorney-General, and some other less important places are Populists. In Nebraska there is only one Democrat on the State ticket of nine names, a second being a Silver Republican, and all the rest Populists. Fusion thus leaves scarcely more than a trace of Democracy, and Populism becomes supreme wherever the personal influence of Bryan is especially potent. Such developments help to illuminate the situation by making plain the influences which dominate the Opposition.

The public was so much engrossed with the Kansas City Convention that due notice was not given to a forward step by the Administration in the matter of civil-service reform—the first in either direction since the terribly long backward one of a year ago. President McKinley has approved an order putting the customs service in both Porto Rico and Hawaii under the civil-service rules, so that hereafter appointments to that branch of the service will be made, as in our custom-houses, from eligible lists of those who have passed a competitive examination. This has been followed by the sending from Washington to Manila of the chairman of the Central Board of Examiners of the Civil-Service Commission, to put the merit system into operation in the Philippines under the Taft Commission. All friends of good government will rejoice at this evidence that the President at last recognizes the necessity of taking some action to check the spoilsmen in "our new possessions," but they will not be satisfied until the right principle is universally applied, not only in Porto Rico and the Philippines, but also in Cuba—and the United States.

A proper rebuke is administered to the Administration by the *Journal of Commerce*, in an article entitled "The Bureau of Partisan Statistics." The reference is to the Treasury Bureau, which has issued a circular calling attention to the effect of the Porto Rico Tariff Act in increasing the commerce of that island. As the *Journal of Commerce* says, the Bureau has no right to publish theories and claims concerning the causes which influence trade. When it does this, it arouses the suspicion that the figures may be manipulated in order to sustain the theories. As we have recently pointed out, when the claims are of a partisan character, the suspicion becomes almost a certainty. In the present instance the claim is so obviously unfounded as to be ridiculous. A year ago our own tariff was applied in Porto Rico, and during the free-trade agitation commerce was at a stand-still. When the taxes were reduced and merchants knew what their charges would be, commerce naturally revived. It would naturally have revived more under free trade, but it would have revived simply because uncertainty was removed. The suggestion of the Bureau of Statistics that the Tariff Act had any peculiarly beneficent effect is a piece of gross impertinence.

Oregon's recent election illustrated the same tendency which had been revealed previously in other far Western States —that when the question of woman suffrage is submitted twice to the same electorate, it fares decidedly better the second time than the first. There are now seven such States, ranging between Kansas and Nebraska on the Missouri and Washington and Oregon on the Pacific, and there has been no exception to the rule. In one case the change was great enough to carry the proposition on the second trial, Colorado having rejected equal suffrage in 1877 by a vote of two to one, and accepted it in 1894 by a majority of several thousand. In Oregon an amendment was submitted in 1884, and "snowed under" by 28,176 no to 11,223 yea votes; while last month the negative total in a larger poll was almost exactly the same as sixteen years ago, 28,402, and the affirmative had more than doubled, reaching 26,265. The majority was in favor of the change outside of the city of Portland, in accordance with an invariable rule that such an amendment is strongest in the rural districts.

A controversy is now taking place between the authorities of Louisiana and those of Alabama which shows the far-reaching evil arising from the toleration of lynch-law. One Jacobi, charged

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with a crime in Montgomery, fled to New Orleans, and the Alabama authorities have been unable to secure his extradition. The Governor of Louisiana takes the position that it would be inhuman to surrender Jacobi, because he would probably be lynched as soon as he reached Montgomery, and might not be safe from the attack of a Montgomery mob, even at Mobile. It is reported that he has telegraphed to Gov. Johnston of Alabama, asking if the fugitive could be protected against lynching if he were surrendered; to which inquiry Gov. Johnston replied that 'it would be a shame to Alabama to have the Governor of a sister State declare that she could not preserve peace and enforce the law in her capital city." This answer evades the real issue. It is a shame that any one can declare truly that the law is not enforced in all parts of Alabama as well as in her capital city; but the shame exists. If toleration of lynch-law in a State justifies the governors of other States in refusing to surrender fugitives from justice, the Governor of Louisiana is warranted in his course in this instance. Unfortunately, the Governor of Alabama would be justified in similar action were he to receive a requisition from the Governor of Louisiana; for the law is disregarded in the latter State as well as in the former. We have lately seen the Governor of Indiana refusing the demand of the Governor of Kentucky for the extradition of a fugitive, and it admits of little doubt that the Governor of New York would take the same position. In fact, he has intimated plainly that such would be his course were ex-Gov. Taylor's extradition demanded by the Kentucky authorities.

The trial of the persons charged with murdering Gov. Goebel of Kentucky is, as might be expected, characterized by some peculiar features. In the exercise of the faculty of common sense, if not of any recognized judicial function, Judge Cantrill compelled every person entering the court to submit to a search for concealed weapons. Some of the high-spirited attorneys of Kentucky resented this as a personal indignity, but the Judge insisted on the execution of his order. The law of Kentucky forbids the carrying of concealed weapons, but we apprehend that the court is justified in taking judicial cognizance of the fact that the law is universally violated. It is quite probable that Judge Cantrill's action will avert bloodshed, for the trial will be conducted with extreme vigor by both sides. Great numbers of witnesses have been summoned, and a fierce struggle is going on over the selection of a jury. It is a reasonably safe prediction that if any stout Republican gets into the jury-box, there will be no conviction; and the probabilities are all against a conviction under any circumstances. In modern times it seldom happens that when the enterprise of newspaper detectives is baffled, that of the officers of the law is successful. Since the newspapers have failed to make out a probable case against any one, we cannot expect anything very definite from the prosecuting attorneys. Most of the witnesses they bring will be suspected of perjury; and they will be contradicted by witnesses equally worthy and unworthy of credence.

The copyright controversy between Canada and Great Britain appears to be nearing a fortunate conclusion. The pending bill has the support apparently of all factions in Canada, while satisfying as well the aggrieved parties, the English authors and publishers. The bill in fact contains several novel and interesting features, and is in every way an improvement over the old Canadian act, or over our present law. The former act provided that a copyrighted English book must be remanufactured in Canada within a month, or else, on condition of promising a royalty of 10 per cent. to the author, any publisher might apply for a license to reprint. There was, however, no provision for actually securing this royalty to the author. Thus every presumption was against him. Failing to complete in a month a difficult business transaction, his rights went over to distant publishers, who might or might not pay him the royalty fixed by law. The proposed act protects the author absolutely, while offering an ingenious concession to the Canadian printer. A book copyrighted in England is by that act copyrighted in Canada also. The author thus retains control of his property, unless he choose to transfer it to a colonial publisher. The author may, however, give an exclusive license to print and publish for Canada. In this case, the importation of non-Canadian editions is forbidden. The publisher is obliged to do the presswork in Canada, but is free to buy the plates elsewhere. In the light of this proposed act, how absurd and oppressive our law appears. We abandon all rights to the piratical publishers unless the author, by a difficult and costly negotiation, reserves them to himself. The new Canadian law will secure the property right of the author until he chooses to dispose of it. In view of this essentially just position towards property rights in literature, the English author may accept with complacency the printing clause, somewhat oppressive though it be.

Although the British Government is not in a position to reciprocate the action of the Dominion of Canada in the matter of a preferential tariff, it has found a means of recompense in another measure. A bill has been introduced in the House of Lords authorizing the investment of trust funds in the inscribed stock of the British Colonies; the effect of which will naturally be to enable these colonies to borrow on easier terms than heretofore. The interests of beneficiaries are protected by a clause forbidding trustees to purchase any of these stocks at a price exceeding its redemption value, if it is liable to be redeemed within fifteen years at par or any other fixed rate. Nor may a trustee purchase any such redeemable stock at a price exceeding 15 per cent. above par, or the fixed rate of redemption. The bill does not extend to the stock of the Indian empire, but is otherwise comprehensive in its application. A great many of these stocks are redeemable within fifteen years, and are, therefore, excluded; but the colonies will no doubt proceed forthwith to refund these stocks at lower rates. There is a good deal to be said in favor of such a measure as this; but it must be admitted that the obligations of some of the British colonies are not such as to tempt a prudent trustee to invest in them.

First a war, then investigation of the scandals which attend it. That seems to be the established order now, and Great Britain is following it. The revelations of miserable shortcomings, or worse, in the hospital service in South Africa came as a painful surprise to the English public. It had had the testimony of eminent English surgeons, Sir William Macormac among them, to the unusual efficiency of the hospitals in Cape Town and Durban; and to be told, as it has been on indisputable authority, that the hospital service at Bloemfontein and at other points in the interior had been scandalously bad, was as disagreeable as unexpected. Supplies, it is now proved, were short, medicines and tents and nurses and physicians were lacking, many wounded men were grievously neglected, and epidemics of typhoid desolated the camps. The only defence is military necessity. Lord Roberts had but a single-track railway on which to bring up supplies from a base 700 miles away. He had to accumulate subsistence for his army for an advance of twenty-five days, or else sit down paralyzed in Bloemfontein. He chose the sad alternative of letting the sick and wounded suffer rather than ruin his campaign. This is a fair statement of the dilemma with which he was confronted. Whether foresight on the part of the War Office might not have prevented him from being reduced to so cruel a choice is another matter, upon which an investigating committee is to pronounce. In any case, the reproach to the medical service of the British army is nothing like so severe as our own was exposed to for having allowed our home camps, with every supply and facility at hand, to become fever-ridden.

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MR. M'KINLEY'S SHREWDNESS AND BLUNDER.

The President's speech to the notification committee at Canton on Thursday began well, was going strong (as the racers say) in the middle, but ended in the collapse of a political blunder of the first magnitude. It came out adroitly and effectively against those parts of the Democratic platform which are weak; but, unluckily, it made the mistake of dashing also against those parts which are strong. On the silver issue and the question of national good faith, Mr. McKinley rose like a man eager to smite under the fifth rib the Philistine whom the Lord had delivered into his hand. But on the topic of Imperialism, he put himself in a position where it is the Philistine who will do the smiting at *his* expense.

A shrewd politician like Mr. McKinley could not fail to strike at the joint in Mr. Bryan's harness. How completely the Democrats at Kansas City played the President's game is shown by his instant acceptance of their silver challenge. The old issue over again, he promptly retorts. It is for the people once more to unite against the "advocates of repudiation," and, in the battle for "public honor and honest money," relax no effort till a Congress is assured which will "sustain and, if need be, strengthen the present law." All this is admirably and forcibly said, and no Gold Democrat, no man who appreciates the critical importance of a sound currency and business stability, will do aught but applaud these utterances of the President. The caviller might point out that Mr. McKinley himself was long a promoter of what he now calls "repudiation," but even the caviller must admit that this particular old silverite is now soundly converted. If there was hope for William McKinley, there is hope for the man most dead in trespasses and silver; and in the complete change now wrought in the President, we see a symbol of the great transformation of the country at large.

When Mr. McKinley came to speak of other financial matters, he lacked something of perfect ingenuousness. He boasted of our being able to refund at 2 per cent., "a lower rate than that of any other country." Entire frankness would have required him to state, what everybody knows, that this rate was only temporarily obtained by taking advantage of the necessities of the banks in the matter of securing bonds as the basis of circulation. Let Secretary Gage go into the open market to borrow money, and it is safe to say he would have to pay more than 2 per cent. Indeed, the refunding law itself authorizes him to pay 3. Nor does the President's laudation of the ill-starred Dingley law, with his complete silence about the necessity of reducing war taxes, contain any promise of fiscal or taxation reform. In so far he justifies the cynical intention of a prominent Democrat to vote for Mr. McKinley in order to make him "reap his own harvest." The example of Mr. Cleveland, crushed under the fatal legacy of Republican legislation, is the only one of the kind this Democrat wishes to see. Let the Republicans shoulder their own blunders this time, and see what good their nostrum of protection and overtaxation will do them.

It is, however, in the part of the President's speech which deals with the Philippines that we see his political cunning deserting him. He can scarcely be said to give a truthful account of the situation, and, what will doubtless seem to him and his managers a more serious matter, he states the case and outlines his intentions in a way to repel the very voters on whom the success of his candidacy depends. What can be said of Mr. McKinley's statement that "the people of the islands . . . recognize American sovereignty as the symbol and pledge of peace, justice, law, religious freedom, education, and the security of life and property"? It is the thing which is not, however much he would like it to be, true. If his idyllic picture of the islands is correct, why can he spare but a handful of troops from the Philippines for service in China? And if it is simply a question of police work, of repressing brigandage, where are the native militia who ought by this time to have been enrolled by the thousand for the work? The simple fact is that Mr. McKinley's 60,000 troops eat up his peaceful words. If they are needed, then the glad acceptance of our rule is a figment.

But what of the future? What of the charge made by the Democrats that Mr. McKinley's policy is one of Imperialism? We regret to say that he confirms the worst that has been alleged. The significant thing is that both he and Senator Lodge go further than the Republican platform. They stiffen and harden its Philippine planks till there can be no mistake about their Imperialistic intent. The platform was constructed, as its framers have said, for the express purpose of conciliating Republican Anti-Imperialists and the sensitive Germans, who know by sad experience what militarism is. So far as the platform goes, it would be still possible to talk, as Senator Spooner did, of giving the Filipinos ultimate independence. But Mr. McKinley has rudely shut the door on all those hopes. He denounces the policy of "scuttle." (This, from the valiant Porto Rican scuttler, is not without its humor.) The islands are "ours," our authority must be made "supreme"; there will be "no abatement of our rights, no abandonment of our duty." (Query, "plain duty"?)

Now we flatly say that all this, putting aside every higher question, is politically a blunder. It will drive away Republican Anti-Imperialist votes. What can Senator Hoar say to this defiant assertion of McKinley's autocratic rule in the Philippines? At the close of his speech in the Senate he called an imaginary roll, and came to this name:

> "William McKinley; William McKinley: 'There has been a cloud before my vision for a moment, but I see clearly now; I go back to what I said two years ago: "Forcible annexation is criminal aggression; Governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed—not of some of them, but of all of them." I will stand with the Fathers of the republic. I will stand with the founders of the Republican party. No.' "

But William McKinley at Canton voted "yes" more vehemently than ever, and bade the fathers and founders go hang. We have no doubt that Senator Hoar will rise nobly to this new trial of his faith. He will trust in the President though he slay him. But to the doubters all over the country; to the troubled consciences in all parties; to the hesitant German-Americans whose votes alone may turn the whole election, Mr. McKinley's words will bear dismay. His first speech is, in this respect, his first blunder. And it is a great and grievous one.

THE TREND OF LEGISLATION.

One of the functions of the Library of the State of New York is the collection and classification every year of the statutes passed by all the legislatures in the Union. From a comparison of these statutes some notion of the general tendency of legislation may be obtained, and such a comparison is attempted in a Bulletin recently issued by the State Library. The subject is too broad to be dealt with except in a superficial manner, but in certain lines it is practicable to note changes which indicate the operation of permanent causes. If we define Socialism as the tendency to enlarge the functions of Government, we must admit that the general drift is in that direction. New commissions and bureaus are continually created, and more and more occupations are subjected to Governmental inspection. In some cases we may be able to discern the influence of a rational and enlightened public opinion, but in others we see the effect of political agitation and of class interests.

As illustrating progress of a satisfactory kind, we may take the legislation affecting the liquor traffic. During the last fifty years this traffic has been prohibited by the laws of no less than seventeen States. At present it is proscribed in only five States: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Kansas, and North Dakota. These are States in which the population is comparatively sparse, and the farming class is predominant. When we consider the intensity of the feeling concerning the evils of drinking, the zeal of the Prohibition party, and the very great moral influence of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, we must

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admit that the repeal of so many prohibitory laws is a remarkable achievement. On the other hand, the rather tempting experiment of the State dispensary system has not commended itself to the sober judgment of our people.

As this Bulletin points out, the attempt to instruct school-children in the physiological effects of alcohol is really a sign of progress. Instruction of this kind is now prescribed in all the States except Georgia, Idaho, Virginia, and Wyoming. We have never thought that teaching of this kind was a desirable feature in the public-school course. Much of it is extremely crude and even false; nevertheless, the method employed is better than that of prohibitory laws. It implies a recognition of the truth that persuasion is superior to force, and it tends to promote temperance by making the effects of alcoholic drink a subject of rational discussion and scientific observation. We may look forward to more correct teaching than now prevails, and to the gradual diffusion of the truth that temperance is but one feature of a sound morality, and that if our children are brought up to desire right living, it will not be necessary to frighten them into abstinence by the exhibition of appalling pictures of the coats of the drunkard's stomach.

We may find further instances of the gradual recognition of changed morality by legislatures in the modifications of the Sunday laws. It was not until 1893 that the State of New Jersey removed its legal prohibition of the publishing and selling of newspapers, the selling of milk, and of walking or riding for recreation, on Sundays. Not until 1897 did Connecticut remove its ban from recreation on that day, and only last year did it legalize the operation of electric cars. The State of California repealed its Sunday laws in 1883, but in 1893 an act was passed restraining employers from exacting more than six days' work in a week from their men. But our legislation on these subjects is extremely defective. Most of the old Sunday laws ought to be swept away. They are not enforced, and are cumbersome relics of an outgrown morality. On the other hand, our laws fail to recognize the fact that the community has adopted the view that six days' work a week is enough. We want one day a week for recreation; but we make little provision for the regulation of the labor of those who have to work in order that others may enjoy themselves.

It is only thirty years since the first State Board of Health was organized in Massachusetts. Now such boards exist in all but five of the States, and their operations will probably be supplemented before long by a national board. The creation of these boards has resulted in much improvement in our vital statistics, although in many States their registration is very imperfect. An illustration of the same tendency appears in the legislation which purports to prevent the adulteration of food; but here the evidence of pecuniary and class interests is so strong as to make it doubtful if such laws indicate genuine progress. The same doubt is suggested when we review the legislation professedly in the interest of laborers. The first Bureau of Labor Statistics was established in Massachusetts in 1869, and such bureaus now exist in thirty-two States, while the Federal Government also maintains one. In view of the large cost of these bureaus, and the partisanship to which most of them have fallen victims, the results which they have achieved are not such as to justify their existence. They have not aided social progress perceptibly, while they have complicated our politics. At the demand of the labor unions, many laws have been passed which have been ineffective, not only because they were regarded as creating offices to be filled by representatives of these unions, but also because they constituted class legislation. Very many of them have been declared unconstitutional; and they illustrate the class of changes which hinder genuine progress. The eight-hour laws, which affect only laborers employed directly or indirectly by Government, cannot be regarded as in the interest of the whole class of laborers or of the community. They benefit a privileged few, at the expense of the unprotected many. The old guild spirit creeps back, too, in laws intended to restrict the numbers of such artisans as blacksmiths and barbers. The general welfare is invoked here, as it always is, to justify special advantages, and over such attempts great struggles will take place in the future.

Many bad laws are passed, and many changes made which are not for the better, yet as we survey the whole field of legislation from year to year, we discern so many advances as to justify us in believing that we are all the time making genuine progress.

LIGHT ON THE BOSS BUSINESS.

Gen. Greene, the new President of the Republican County Committee, is confirming the worst fears of the machine. He actually wants the political workers under him to be honest—financially honest! He has found a shortage in the Committee's accounts of $20,000, or so, and doesn't like it. The bookkeeping system he discovers to be ingeniously devised to invite fraud and peculation, and, in his offensive reformatory zeal, he is giving orders to have the accounts kept in the ordinary way of business men. Worse than this, he has determined to have one regular bank account, with no money to be drawn out except by check signed by the President and Treasurer of the Committee. Naturally, he is stoutly opposed to Quigg's little plan of a Finance Committee, *à la* Tammany, with himself the irresponsible head of it, *à la* Croker. No wonder that Quigg, with such an enemy as Gen. Greene is proving himself to the tried and trusted methods of Republican politics, placed at the head of the most important committee, should be indulging in and divulging horrid fears lest Bryan carry New York.

These incidents should illumine many darkened minds respecting the boss business. Taken in connection with Platt's open arrangements to turn over the Republican boss-ship, with all its hereditaments and appurtenances, to Mr. Odell, they enable us to see precisely what the meat is upon which our Cæsars feed to grow so great. Exactly what is the property which Platt, being weak in body, but of sound and disposing mind, is preparing to will to Mr. Odell? Is it political wisdom? Is it long acquaintance with the wiles and guile of the Democratic party, and skill in meeting them? No, it is the power of the purse, simply and brutally; it is the power to receive political contributions and collect campaign tribute, with no questions asked, and no accounts kept or rendered. The Thrale brewery boasted no such potentiality of wealth.

One can but be amused at the simple-minded surprise of Republicans in this city at the cool way in which Platt is dictating the succession in tyranny. They have long been counting upon Nature and the revolving years finally to rid them of Platt's hated despotism. His yoke they could not throw off as long as he lived, but when he was gone! Then the old, free Republican party would be restored. Platt could leave no possible successor. The party simply would not stand it, you know. Well, the boss, like Conan Doyle's Duke at the battle of Armageddon, "will have a word to say about that." Having the greatest untaxed franchise in the State at his disposal, he does not propose to let it expire with him, but means to pass it on in unimpaired vigor to Mr. Odell.

There have been two theories about the secret of Platt's bestriding his party in this State. One is what may be called the diabolic theory. He was a man in alliance with the powers of evil. He had spun political plots out of his vitals as a spider spins her web. Of infernal ingenuity, and a very master of malevolent intrigue, he had got one and another party leader in his clutches, by a kind of black art, until he could not be shaken off. Of course, no such Quasimodo of political mischief could succeed him; and, his evil reign once over, the party could hold up its head again. The other theory made out Platt more human, a man of like passions with other mortals, even kindly in his way, but of singular sagacity, of old experience attaining a prophetic strain, managing men by wis-

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dom, controlling his party by astuteness, conquering by shrewd counsels. This theory, too, implied, of course, that no such king of men, no such miracle of political insight, would be raised up to succeed Platt. Nature would break the mould. We have heard of a leading Republican politician of this city gravely shaking his head, when the question of Platt's successor was raised in conversation, and saying, "Mr. Platt will have no successor. No other man has his sheer ability, his extraordinary talent for leadership, his ripe experience, his profound knowledge of human nature"—our readers can guess the rest of the panegyric.

Everybody can see now, however, that the hiding of Platt's power is quite elsewhere. He has been a boss not because he was a fiend or because he was a sage. Ever since he first sat at the receipt of customs, as Chairman of the State Committee, and used the position to make himself Senator, the secret of his career has been an open one, to those who had eyes to see. The most blind ought now to be able to see it. Platt's designation of Mr. Odell as his heir is as revealing a proceeding as the filing of a will in the Surrogate's Court. It discovers the decedent's property and what he does with it. Platt's public property has consisted simply in being the "man whom you pay." That is the only tangible asset he can make over to Mr. Odell, but, that once passed on, all is passed on. If Republican business men go on paying money to a man who never renders accounts, if corporations continue to buy legislation from him, or pay him blackmail, the dynasty will be perpetuated. We shall simply say, "The boss is dead; long live the boss!" But if honest Republicans snap their purses shut when the boss's collectors come round, or say they will give only when some such system of business-like accounts is adopted as Gen. Greene advocates; if conscience or fear of publicity restrains corporations from swelling the secret corruption fund of the man in whose hands money means nomination to office, and control of his creatures in office, then we may begin to hope that the line of bosses will become extinct. The remedy is, as it has always been, in the hands of those who pay. The "man whom you pay" is but their wretched creature. The business of the boss is nothing, in essence, but the control of the party treasury; and if his supplies were to be cut off, he would die like an ordinary Christian.

THE GERMANS IN CHINA.

Among the items of news from China last week was a report from Canton that there had been a fight between the Germans and Boxers at Kiao-Chau in which many of the latter were killed. This incident, and the killing of Baron von Ketteler by the mob in Pekin, seem to indicate that the irritation caused by the seizure of the bay and town of Kiao-Chau by Germany some three years ago is still active, and must be held accountable in large part for the present desperate situation in northern China.

The facts connected with this seizure are presented in an impartial way in the current number of the *Forum* by Charles Denby, jr., our former Secretary of Legation at Pekin. That the acquisition of a strip of territory on the Chinese coast had been in contemplation for some time before the actual seizure took place, was made plain by a speech of Herr von Bülow in the Reichstag, April 27, 1898, explaining, in part, the reasons for the seizure of Kiao-Chau. He said that Germany did not desire a partition of China, but was determined that, if it came, she should have a strategical position which would enable her to exercise a decisive influence in the future of the Far East. This, he said, was on the principle that the devil takes the hindmost. Germany now had a naval station and ports and the nucleus of an army in a convenient position. She could accordingly look with complacency on the development of affairs.

How this point of vantage was obtained has not been forgotten by distant observers; and therefore must be held in lively remembrance by the people whose territory was seized. Two German missionaries were brutally murdered by a Chinese mob at a village in southern Shantung, November 1, 1897. Germany demanded full reparation, indemnity for the families of the victims, compensation for the expenses incurred by the Government, and a naval station on the coast of China. If the Italian Government had demanded from us compensation for the victims of the New Orleans massacre, plus a naval station in Mobile Bay, the two cases would have been parallel in the eye of international law; the only difference being found in the strength of the Powers concerned, and their ability to enforce or resist the demand. China complied with all the requirements of Germany except the last, and had not refused even that when the German forces in Chinese waters, only two weeks after the murder of the missionaries, seized Kiao-Chau Bay, landed soldiers, and took possession of the forts and adjacent territory. Such haste implied an apprehension that the Chinese Government might offer a less advantageous place, or refuse the demand altogether. Some months after the seizure had been effected, the Chinese Government recognized it as an accomplished fact, and made a treaty with Germany granting a lease of the bay and adjacent territory for ninety-nine years, but retaining the sovereignty over it. That this reserved sovereignty was only nominal is shown by the fact that the government of the leased territory was vested in Germany. Various grants for the building of railways and the working of mines beyond the leased territory were embraced in the treaty, and these were coupled with written assurances that Germany had no treacherous intention to seize any land beyond the boundaries of the lease, but only to increase commerce and improve the relations of the two countries.

Mr. Denby mentions the following reasons why Germany seized Kiao-Chau rather than any other *point d'appui* on the coast:

> "Except Shantung, there was scarcely a province in which she could have planted herself without encroaching on the alleged rights of others. It is a sad commentary on the decadence of China that there is scarcely any desirable territory along the coast which does not fall within some foreign government's 'sphere of influence.' To have gone north of Shantung would have been to enter a field where the White Czar is self-predestined master. South of Shantung, in the provinces of Kiangsu and Chekiang, we come upon the Yangtse Valley, which has been staked out by England in a shadowy agreement with China that no part thereof shall be alienated to any other Power. The coast of Fukien, further south, has been preëmpted by Japan, by virtue of her annexation of Formosa—a preëmption which has been recognized by the Chinese Government in an agreement, made in April, 1898, that no part of this province shall be alienated by any nation but Japan. In the next two provinces, Kuangtung and Kuangsi, any German establishment would have been regarded with more than disfavor by England and France."

Mr. Denby adds that all the deep-water harbors on the coast are now in the hands of foreigners except that of Amoy. Italy, it is well understood, would not refuse that.

It is not to be supposed that the seizure of Kiao-Chau Bay was looked upon with indifference by the Chinese people or that it was without its influence in arousing the revengeful spirit of which there has been so much evidence during the past month. Although there was no popular outbreak at the time; although there was nothing like a general protest against the cession of Kiao-Chau to Germany, or of Port Arthur to Russia, yet there is much reason to believe that the dreadful scenes of the past month are traceable to an aroused public spirit, and not to the labors of missionaries in China. It can hardly be due to accident that the German Minister was the first to fall a victim to Chinese vengeance. The Government of China, in its explanation of the killing of Baron von Ketteler, does not refer to the seizure of Kiao-Chau Bay. It could not do so, since it had given its consent and ratification to it subsequently; but unless the Chinese are different from all other races of men known to history, the acts of Germany and the other grabbing Powers would be sufficient to account for all the bloodshed that has taken place in China since the 1st of June.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—IV.

FRENCH AERIAL NAVIGATION.

PARIS, June 23, 1900.

In the huge U-shaped building where most of the articles made in this world can be

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seen—from mighty machines of shining steel and brass to the most delicate fabrics fashioned by their almost human intelligence—one occasionally comes upon surprising oases, suggestive collections which open unexpected avenues of thought rather alien to the superbly material forcefulness of surrounding exhibits. Such are the remarkable cases of old keys, ancient locks, and ornamental iron work with which several happy hours unconsciously slipped away. One could scarcely imagine that so many beautiful forms of historic keys could exist, until these noteworthy collections of M. le Secq des Tournelles had been studied. Another is a fascinating room full of antique clocks and watches, hourglasses and clepsydras—the history of time, as it were, and still serviceable in annihilating our common father, though perhaps in a different way from that which their long-vanished makers intended. Of scarcely less interest is the corner in which are brought together all ancient devices in connection with artificial light—candlesticks of exquisite old shapes and many materials, snuffers and trays, numberless shelves of extinguishers, Roman lamps and candelabra, an epitome of historic illumination.

But I discovered to-day a veritable well-spring of pleasantness, after a somewhat arid stroll past wheels and leather, carriages and carpets. My attention was attracted by a large, bat-like object suspended overhead, showing a multiplicity of mysterious and rather chaotic wings: a bird, a butterfly, an August cicala, a bat, and a whirling maple seed combined, might perhaps describe the Ader type of flying-machine "éclaireur et torpilleur." It seemed to suggest the objects below. Captive balloons of many models, with various kinds of cars and baskets, opportunities for choice in ropes and pulleys, and even the pongee silks made in China and Japan for gaseous inflation, attracted few gazers; but the case containing a picture of Andree and his associates, Fraenkel and Strindberg, was constantly surrounded, as the one farther on, representing the frozen fjord and glistening mountains above which their balloon was poised on the 11th of July, 1897. Aeronautical instruments for meteorologic observation are grouped together, and a neighboring map shows the tracks of various high-air voyages from Paris to a distance of 1,200 kilometres. All these, with flying machines of different principles and epochs, "grapplers" and anchors for landing (unexpectedly or otherwise) upon earth and sea, make a very modern section, of which the interest is not diminished by a glance at the fine photographs taken from different altitudes. These appear to be a series of particularly good enlargements. St.-Genis-Laval (Rhone) from a height of 650 metres is clear and perfect, while a charming picture of cumulus cloud in process of formation, allowing between its masses distant but distinct glimpses of fields and woods, was taken from a height of 1,350 metres. The Pont-des-Vaux (Ain) from 1,600 metres is small yet still clearly defined, and lovely cloud photographs are shown, made at 2,050 metres altitude.

It will be remembered that scientific ascents for the purpose of getting above the accidents of meteorological circumstance have not been unknown; and here may be seen the actual substance of *Le Volta*, in which the famous astronomer Janssen made his upper-air pilgrimage on the 2d of December, 1870. This devoted observer, thus leaving besieged Paris in ample time for the sun's eclipse of the 22d, was not rewarded for his energetic faithfulness; an overcast sky being his portion upon the important day. The siege of Paris, indeed, is constantly memorialized in these aerial cases, in ways other than scientific. One of them contains a fragment of the material used by Eugène Godard in constructing *Le Washington* for use during that memorable winter; some of the dispatches thus sent overhead; and pictures of the balloon high above the city, casting its shadow upon surrounding clouds. Here, too, one sees the carefully stuffed body of the carrier pigeon celebrated at that troublous time—another sort of aerial communication, to be sure, but perhaps appropriately commemorated here. The tragic death in the sea of Prince on the 30th of November, 1870, and of Lacaze, who ascended in the *Richard Wallace* the 27th of January, 1871, and also perished in the ocean, are represented several times in harrowing pictures. Other cases contain volumes upon high-air navigation, volumes of *L'Aéronaute*, and numbers of the *Journal des Voyages*, illustrating this phase of human endeavor. Also exhibited are the kite explorations of upper air brought to such successful issue by Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch of Blue Hill. The familiar face of Dr. Abel Hureau de Villeneuve and those of MM. Henry Gifford and Maurice Mallet look from one frame, beside many old engravings of ascensions, successful descents, and fatal endings.

But historical collections of balloon memorabilia may be both poetic and æsthetic. This is proved by the quaint and beautiful articles owned by M. Louis Bérean and M. Albert Tissandier shown near by. Curious old prints published more than a hundred years ago, some of them colored, represent every sort of attempt at aerial navigation, sometimes seriously, often in amusing caricature, with catastrophes, both humorous and ghastly, which would appear to have been particularly dear to the hearts of artists and engravers in 1783 and thereabouts. Stone and marble tablets, one of that year in memory of De Rozier, oddly decorated medals in silver and bronze, an ancient oil painting of a captive balloon reluctantly restrained by ropes held in the tugging hands of a dozen blue-coated gentlemen of a past century, fill the first case, with a superb lot of old books. Among them is 'Essai sur la Nautique Aérienne,' published by Eugène Onfroy in 1784, and a fine old volume issued in Brescia in 1670, dedicated "Alla sacra Maestà Cesarea del Imperatore Leopoldo I," and volume iii. of 'La Découverte Australe, par un Homme-Volant; ou Le Dédale Français; Nouvelle très-philosophique,' of which the first volume is in another collection farther on. Volume i., however, has a more amusing frontispiece, wherein an airily attired individual in wings and an umbrella, carrying a suspended basket below his feet, is about to set sail into space from the summit cliff of a high mountain.

The painstaking and beautiful accumulation of M. Tissandier shows silver and pewter plates engraved with balloon subjects, numberless handsome snuff-boxes of multitudinous designs of the same idea painted or inlaid, old prints in quaint frames; cups and saucers, sugar-bowls, water-pitchers of all epochs; a vase in shape ilke a Japanese saké-bottle, a tiny drum of ancient form, silver candlesticks, miniatures, and jewelry set in brilliants, a cane, a sword, silver-handled knives, nearly thirty plates, and more than two dozen exquisitely painted fans, long gloves, brass escutcheons and ivory carvings—all old, all exhibiting in one form or another the thought of balloon voyaging or navigating the air in some manner. It forms a noteworthy and most curious aggregation, even a lot of antique printed cottons adding their pictorial testimony to aerial history.

For the sun's eclipse of August, 1887, Professor Mendeléef also attempted to rise above the clouds, in Russia. His experience could hardly fail to come to mind among these high-air memorials, though no record of his trip is shown here. In some way his aeronaut was left behind at the last moment, so that the astronomer got above the clouds in well-nigh a double sense, shooting up alone into space to a height of nearly two miles above the earth. He did obtain, from this lofty region, a clear and unobstructed view of a fine corona, quite obscured to his countrymen below; but we can well imagine that the imminent duties devolving upon him as the guiding spirit of so novel a conveyance must have allowed but preoccupied attention to solar glories.

M. Henry Dumoutet is an artist especially skilful in painting scenery of the upper air, and many illustrations from his facile brush are shown, in small monochrome water-colors, as well as oil representations in natural colors of life above the clouds. Moonlight with the strange atmospheric effect of a cross like an elongated corona around the mild luminary, zodiacal light in the constellation Virgo, earth-scenery from above, and many technical matters he has artistically delineated, especially the effects observed during the ascent of *L'Alliance* on the night of the 14th of November, 1899, with the Russian astronomer, Hansky, from Meudon, to look for the coy Leonids. A few of these, too, are shown, and his pictorial record of another excursion for a similar purpose two nights later also appears, when he once more essayed the empyrean in company with MM. Louis Vernachet and E. Valentine.

Of Mlle. Dorothea Klumpke's experiences during an aerial voyage in the *Centaure*, during the early morning of November 16, 1899, also in search of that year's elusive meteors, she has already told delightfully in the June *Century*. Her account, as she described to us orally her preparations and her flight into space, was even fuller than her written description of the mystery and exhilaration, the strange nearness of the unknown, and the inexplicable charm of upper air. She is "docteur ès sciences," and at the head of a force of computers in the Paris Observatory, charged with the very important duty of preparing a catalogue of the stars from the plates of the International Astrographic Congress. For the solar eclipse of the present year, May 28, she made another balloon ascension, but was unable to reach an altitude entirely above the mists and cloud enshrouding Paris at that time. The disappointment was less vital since the eclipse was not total here. Mlle. Klumpke has read a brilliant paper this week, at the International Congress of Women, upon feminine achievement in astronomy—a subject upon which she is undoubted authority.

Of course there is a captive balloon in the Exposition grounds, for the amusement of

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the laymen; but of far greater interest is the exhibition of free balloons at Vincennes. Last Sunday eight fully inflated air-voyagers of forty or fifty feet in diameter were simultaneously shown. Four ascended in twenty minutes, with their aeronauts. In one, a lady started on the unknown voyage with two aeronauts; in another, the captain of the celestial craft started alone. The lower air was perfectly quiet when the balloons were freed, and all took different directions, according to the speed of their vertical ascent and the corresponding air currents which they struck later. They set forth at four o'clock, but at sundown only one had entirely disappeared from the gaze of the vast throngs watching at Vincennes. The experiments are conducted under the auspices of the Committee on Aerostation, of which the veteran expert De Fonvielle is secretary.

The subject of human transportation through space will always be of profound interest until it is a practically and comfortably established fact of every-day occurrence. And France is surely the country in which this problem is liable to meet its final solution. MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

A NEW NATIONAL GALLERY FOR ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 27, 1900.

A new gallery has been added to the national possessions of England. On Monday, the 25th of June, Hertford House in Manchester Square was opened to the public, and now at last, after three years of waiting, the famous Wallace collection, bequeathed to the nation by Lady Wallace, is on view to all who choose to come and pass through the turn-stile at the door.

The history of the collection is well known. Its foundation was laid by the third Marquess of Hertford, the original, it is said, of Thackeray's Lord Steyne. It was added to enormously by the fourth Marquess, who, owing to some forgotten dispute with the vestry of his parish, went to live in Paris, which accounts for his special interest in the art of France. And it was completed by Sir Richard Wallace, to whom, instead of to the next of kin, it was left by this same Marquess upon his death in 1870. Sir Richard Wallace and, afterwards, Lady Wallace were generous; they were among the most frequent contributors to the Academy and other exhibitions of old masters; for a while, when the collection was first brought back from France, it was shown in the Bethnal Green Museum, where it remained from 1872 to 1875, so that the value of the treasures that Lady Wallace (who had inherited them in her turn) bequeathed to the nation was fully realized at the time of her death in 1897. Indeed, there could be no question as to accepting her bequest, though she did hamper it with certain conditions, and the National Museums have already suffered sadly from too many conditional gifts. I do not believe any one doubts the advantage of centralizing the great national collections. The pictures from Hertford House would have helped to fill the serious gaps in the National Gallery; the furniture and bronzes, faience and porcelain would have performed the same service in South Kensington; and the arms and armor would have made the armory at the Tower a worthy rival of that wonderful museum in Vienna. But Lady Wallace stipulated that the collection should always be kept together and known as the Wallace collection, and that the Government should agree to provide a special building for it in a central part of London.

As I have said, the bequest was one the nation could not afford to refuse, on any terms, and the result was that the Committee in charge decided that the collection should remain in Hertford House. Sir Edward Poynter objected. As Director of the National Gallery, he knew better than most men how much the Watteaus and Fragonards, the Lancrets and Paters, the Corots and Rousseaus were needed in Trafalgar Square, and he suggested as a compromise that a new building should be put up as near the National Gallery as possible. But he was alone, and unfortunately could not convert the rest of the Committee to his way of thinking. It is a pity, for Manchester Square is off the beaten track of museums and galleries—though Mr. Whistler's Company of the Butterfly now has delightful rooms round the corner—and there is just a danger of its sharing the fate of the picturesque little Soane Museum, virtually forgotten because it happens to be hidden away in Lincoln's Inn Fields.

However, it must be admitted that Hertford House is, in every other respect, an admirable museum. It has the charm of not having been built for the express purpose of exhibiting works of art. Two of the most beautiful museums in Europe are the Cluny in Paris and the Plantin in Antwerp, simply because they have not the look of museums. Hertford House, of course, cannot compete with them in beauty, and many of its apartments have been altered and rebuilt. Still, it retains, on the whole, the air of a palace rather than a gallery, and the arrangement of the collection adds to this effect. It has come to be a tradition nowadays that examples of the different arts should be separated as jealously as if their meeting within the same four walls were a crime. But there is no reason in the world why beautiful things should not be shown beautifully, and it is to the credit of the Directors that at Hertford House they have refused to draw the usual line of separation. The arms and armor have four spacious galleries to themselves on the ground floor; but the wonderful French furniture, of all kinds and many periods, the almost unrivalled Sèvres porcelain, the enamels and bronzes, the eighteenth-century snuff-boxes, the miniatures, the medals—all these things and many more are scattered throughout the large and small rooms whose walls are covered with pictures. The one drawback of this arrangement, at the moment, is an excess of gorgeousness. The walls in several of the galleries are of a vivid red that overpowers the paintings, the cases in the centre are aggressive with gilding. The cool, quiet green used as background for the Watteaus is a continual reproach to the hotter tint of the other rooms. But reds and gilding will be quickly subdued to the proper tone by time and London atmosphere, and the present flamboyant color and glitter reduced to an appropriate harmony.

The chief interest of the collection centres about the series of French pictures, for the simple reason that hitherto the French School has been all but unrepresented in the British national galleries. There are other fine pictures, to be sure: two or three splendid portraits by Rembrandt and one by Van Dyck; examples of Velasquez, Rubens's "Rainbow Landscape," a Titian, the "Perseus and Andromeda," lost to the world, the catalogue says, for about a century; a long succession of English portraits of the eighteenth century, among them Reynolds's "Strawberry Girl," which he himself describes as "one of the half-dozen original things which no man ever exceeded in his life-work," and his "Nelly O'Brien," which D'Annunzio has just been coupling with the "Mona Lisa"; and, without exception, the most delicate renderings of Venetian architecture and waters by Guardi that I have ever seen anywhere. But, after all, most of these masters and all the schools to which they belong may be studied just as well in the National Gallery, where, however, you might fancy French painting had come to an end with Claude and Poussin. Save for an occasional Greuze, Madame Vigée-Lebrun, and Rosa Bonheur, there is no French work at all. But in the Wallace collection there are exquisite Watteaus, nine in all; there are Lancrets, Paters, Fragonards—all the painters of *Fêtes Galantes*, of the artificial romantic comedy that faded and paled before the terrors of the Revolution and the cold classicism of David. There are Bouchers. There are men like Prudhon and Boilly, the connecting links between the eighteenth century and the Romanticism of 1830, the period that is most surprisingly well represented. It begins, as it should, with the English Bonington, an influence in France long before he won recognition in England, and it is doubtful whether there is another series as complete of his paintings and water-colors. And after him come Géricault, Delacroix, Decamps, Marilhat, Couture, Corot, Rousseau, Troyon, Dupré, Diaz. True, there is much that now has but an historical interest—innumerable canvases by Horace Vernet and Camille Roqueplan making you wonder why it ever seemed worth while to any one to collect them, even if here are the very pictures singled out for praise by Heine and Gautier: Vernet's "Judah and Tamar," Roqueplan's "Lion in Love," for example. But they have their place in the history of French art in the nineteenth century, and the great regret is that Sir Richard Wallace died just a little too soon, perhaps, to appreciate that this history is not complete without the work of Manet and Monet, Degas and Puvis de Chavannes, and one or two others whose fame and influence will prove something more than the passing fashion of a day.

But in a collection that has so many virtues the faults need not be insisted upon. After this, every American who comes to London and visits the National Gallery must complete his studies there by the journey across central London to Hertford House, in Manchester Square. N. N.

AFTER PETER THE GREAT.

PARIS, June 28, 1900.

M. Waliszewski is indefatigable. He has given us four volumes in succession: 'Le Roman d'une Impératrice,' 'Autour d'un Trône,' 'Marysienka,' and 'L'Hérédité de Pierre le Grand.' The two first volumes are a complete history of Catherine II.; the third is the history of Marie de la Grange d'Arquien, who became the wife of Sobieski. These works, if

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they are written in a sort of broken and exotic French, and sometimes show a sort of curious agitation of mind and fervor of imagination very uncommon in historians, constitute, nevertheless, a very important addition to the history, still so little known, of Russia, by the abundance of their documents, all taken from original sources. Twenty-five years ago, the Duke Decazes, who was then Minister of Foreign Affairs, opened to M. Waliszewski the Archives of the French Foreign Office, and thus gave him, with a taste for historical researches, the means to satisfy his curiosity. In his fourth volume he has used not only the French Archives, but those of Dresden and of Berlin.

The volume opens after the death of Peter the Great. The situation was singular; there was no will, no heir to the throne, no law of heredity, "no sovereign in a country where the sovereign had arranged that all power should emanate from him alone, and that there should be nobody to regulate him." The only law was, for the moment, in these few words which Peter had traced in his agony: "Give everything to . . ." He had not been able to finish the sentence. The old aristocratic families of Russia were divided and jealous of each other. The men in office were all upstarts, creatures of the reformer; they were afraid of falling into obscurity again. Their only chance was a perpetuation of the great reign, and therefore all their wishes and hopes went to the companion of the Tsar, with whom they had a community of interests and sentiments. Was not Catherine, like themselves, an upstart and a creature of Peter? She manœuvred with great ability. During the last illness of the Tsar, she made arrangements with the officers of the guards; as soon as Peter was dead, she convoked the Synod, the officers of state, surrounded the palace with troops, and was proclaimed Empress. Catherine I. owed her elevation to the throne to a *coup d'état*, and this method was followed afterwards for Ivan III., Elizabeth, and Catherine II. "The Guard will always play, in these revolutions, the part of the ancient chorus. Behind the authors of the revolution of 1762 there will not be even the shadow of a principle, and the Orloffs, in order to attain their object with the wife of Peter III., will take the shortest road, the road used by soldiers when they feel strongest."

With the régime of *coups d'état* came also that of government by women, of gynecocracy, which lasted seventy years. It is rather curious that this form of feminism found a natural theatre in the Slav world. In Russia, as well as in Bohemia and in Poland, woman has frequently the features and character of an Amazon. At Novgorod, women appeared in the popular assemblies. Herzen spoke severely of Catherine I. He said that "the Russia of Peter the Great reached the new Russia through a house of prostitution." In reality, not much that is certain is known about Catherine before she became the wife of the sovereign. In 1702 she was called Martha, and "between the house of Parson Glück and the camp of the conquerors of Livonia, she filled the office of a good German maid, used to most humble functions." The year after, Peter took her to Moscow, she was converted to the Orthodox Church, and had two children, Anne and Elizabeth. She was married to Peter only in 1712, after the birth of these children. It is said that she did not know at first how to read and write; but in three months she learned to sign documents of state, and the Russian Archives possess her book of expenses from 1722 to 1725, written in her own hand. The Empress was surrounded by German maids, and by German or Polish adventurers, such as Reinhold Loewenwolde, the agent of the Duchess of Courland (daughter of the eldest brother of Peter), a typical representative of those Germans who, under Peter I., held themselves "as tranquil as water, as low as grass," as the Russian proverb runs; and Sapieha, who became her lover at the same time, the type of those Polish noblemen who, "at the approach of disaster to their country, saved their own fortunes at the price which is generally given for such compromises."

What the Court was at the time can be gathered from these lines of Lefort, the Saxon envoy:

"July 14, 1725.—It is impossible to define the conduct of this Court; night is turned into day; . . . nothing is done; . . . nobody will undertake any business; . . . the palace is inaccessible, full of intrigues.

"May 25, 1726.—I am afraid of being considered a liar if I say what sort of life is led at this Court. Who would believe that the nights are all spent in horrid scenes of drinking? . . . There is no question of business; everything languishes and perishes.

"March 15, 1727.—The Treasury is empty; nobody is paid. . . . In fact, I cannot find sufficiently vivid colors to paint this chaos."

It is quite true that Catherine spent her life in drinking, that she kept her old habits of washerwoman, of regimental cook; that she did not for a moment think of governing. "Nevertheless," says M. Waliszewski, "there was a government moving in the chaos of which the Saxon envoy speaks; it lived and was not drowned, otherwise this reign, as well as the following reigns which closely resembled it, would have marked the end of Russia. Gynecocracy had, in this country as elsewhere, a natural counterpart, at the same time damaging and salutary, namely, favoritism." Russia was, in reality, in the hands of more or less clever favorites. "This phenomenon does not explain wholly an enigma which puzzled all the contemporaries—the maintenance and development of a formidable power under conditions of life which, to all appearances, ought to have determined its ruin. Russia had other reasons for living and increasing its power, which I will try to explain. But the participation in power of the Menshikoffs and the Potemkins was one of the elements of this prodigious destiny."

During his lifetime Peter the Great sometimes accepted Romodanovski and sometimes Menshikoff as substitutes in the exercise of the fundamental functions of sovereignty. In the absence of any organized political bodies, Catherine had nothing to do but to allow Menshikoff to perform the duties which he had often assumed during Peter's journeys. Menshikoff became the real ruler and sovereign. He encountered some rivals—the Duke of Holstein, Tolstoi—and had to make concessions to them. The Empress died at the age of fifty, after a few months' ailing. According to the terms of her will, the new Emperor was Peter Alexeyevitch. The will safeguarded the rights of Anne and Elizabeth, in case Peter should die without posterity.

Peter II. was only twelve years old. He had nothing of his grandfather in his appearance, and looked more like his mother, Charlotte of Wolfenbüttel. He was in the habit of calling Menshikoff "papa," and so continued. Menshikoff took him into his own house, sent away his preceptors, and gave him one of his own choice, the Westphalian Ostermann. On the height which he had now attained, Menshikoff showed much cleverness. In order to give solidity to his fortune, he surrounded himself and the young Emperor with members of the oldest families, the Galitzins, the Dolgorukis. He set free the grandmother of the young Emperor, who had been kept in prison since 1718 in the convent of Lake Ladoga, Eudoxia Lapukhin, who went under the name of the "Nun Helen." Curious details are found in the papers of the time as to the treatment inflicted at Schlüsselburg on this touching victim of the passions of Peter the Great. Eudoxia was not, however, allowed to come to St. Petersburg.

The history of the fall of Menshikoff is told at great length by M. Waliszewski. The young Emperor did not long follow his rule, and on the 7th of September, 1727, dismissed the man who had been the favorite of Catherine. Menshikoff was exiled to his estate of Oranienburg, and lost all his dignities. All the members of his family left St. Petersburg. The people looked upon these changes with indifference, being ignorant of the causes and not perceiving the consequences.

Peter II. was a very despicable sovereign—or, rather, he was no sovereign at all. His whole time was spent in hunting. With all his defects, he was popular. He kept the army on a peace footing, and therefore did not tax the people very heavily. He affianced himself to one of the Dolgorukis—Catherine, who was very handsome, very bold and imperious, and who had received a good education at Warsaw. The succession of Menshikoff was divided between the Dolgorukis and the Galitzins. Ostermann, who had been one of the chief instruments in the downfall of Menshikoff, though Menshikoff had been his protector, continued to have much influence.

The Emperor put off from day to day his marriage ceremony. Ostermann was secretly plotting against the Dolgoruki family; the Emperor was tired of their rule, their pretensions, their avarice. On the 6th of January, 1730, took place the ceremony of the blessing of the waters of the Neva. Peter was at the ceremony with Catherine Dolgoruki; he took cold on his return, and fell ill of the smallpox. The consternation of the Dolgorukis was great. The diplomatic body became agitated. Peter had the imprudence to open a window the fifth day after the beginning of his illness; the eruption was checked, he was lost. A will was presented to the dying Emperor, in which Catherine Dolgoruki was called to the throne. Ostermann thwarted the plans of the Dolgorukis. The Vice-Chancellor kept guard over the bed of Peter, who was in a state of delirium. Ivan Dolgoruki went through the rooms of the palace, sword in hand, screaming, "Long live the Empress Catherine!" He found no echo, and finally went home and burned the false will. When Peter II. died, nothing was ready. Fortunately, there was a Supreme Council, which was able to take the reins of government in hand, and which assumed the right to fill the vacancy of the throne.

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Correspondence.

PROTECTION WITHOUT MILITARISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As Mr. Bryan is radically opposed to "militarism," one would like to know how he proposes in practice to carry out the third article of his programme for the Philippines, namely, "to give them protection from outside interference while they work out their own destiny," without making very considerable concessions to militarism. Assuming responsibilities of this sort in the Orient would obviously be for us a very different matter from assuming them on the American continent. We should have to be armed with something better than a sword of lath to make our "prave 'ords" respected in an arena which promises to succeed the Low Countries in the doubtful distinction of being the cockpit of Europe, and where the validity of our claims to a right to intervene would be measured, as with other nations, by our ability to make them good *vi et armis*.

E. G. J.

MILWAUKEE, WIS., July 11, 1900.

AUSTRIAN-GERMAN EDUCATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The stringent comments passed upon our American education in a recent number of the *Atlantic* by a German professor, for some years past a member of the faculty of Harvard College, are serious indeed if founded in fact. His criticism contains two major assertions: first, that the German schoolboy learns much more in a given space of time than the American lad; second, that the German not only does this with no sacrifice of health, but with ample time for music, horseback-riding, mountain-climbing, etc., etc. Whether the schools of Imperial Germany differ much from those of German Austria, I know not, not having had much opportunity to observe the schools of Germany proper. A year's residence in Austria, however, has given me some facts which have helped me, though an American teacher, not to be stung too deeply by the above-mentioned indictment of American teachers and ideals of education.

To begin with, one must admit that the Austrian schoolboy who has passed his *Matura* is much farther ahead of the American lad who is ready for Harvard or Yale than the former's added two years of study should warrant. The Austrian has not wasted long hours in the silly effort to sing in unison with 200 other raucous-voiced lads, nor in the even sillier attempt to draw cones and pots and vases. He has learned, with a thoroughness not known to the usual American school, precisely those things which will help him in pursuing a rational university course. He has gained a respect for scholarly attainment that amounts to a desire to know all things. The very first glance at the class-room of an Austrian university brings to mind that unfortunate German parson "recruited" along with Barry Lyndon, who, with a fortune of some odd marks, had learned Greek, Latin, English, French, Hebrew, and Sanskrit, and had a burning desire to acquire Chinese.

If, however, one marks all this, he also marks the distinctively inferior physique of these same much-lettered youths. He learns one of the causes of this inferiority when he finds that, even at the great University of Vienna, where there are not hundreds but thousands of students, the utmost one can do in the way of physical exercise is two hours per week in a small, ill-provided gymnasium, and that it is unwise to work so hard as to sweat in these two hours—because no baths are provided in the gymnasium. The further down in the scale of schools one goes, the more striking becomes the physical inferiority—perhaps because the short trousers of the small boys show their wretchedly undeveloped bodies more forcibly than do their dead-white faces. There is no question but that the Austrian schoolboy is weak to a degree that would shock an American father or teacher.

The German critics of our schools may say that this is due to the poverty of dwelling and of food that marks the life of all Austrians below the upper-middle class. It may be so, but the Austrian teachers themselves admit that the pupils are over-worked. I remember, in particular, a conversation with the Director of a Gymnasium who was much frightened at the ill-health and nervousness of his son. "Our boys are so overloaded with work," he said, "that they are often diseased nervously, and I fear that my boy is getting into that state." It was suggested that two hours' enforced football per day would prove a remedy, but he overthrew this possibility by saying that his boy was too ambitious to give so much time to play, and that if he, the father and the Director, should enforce it, his boy might get a 2 instead of a 1 as his grade. "Then he might blow his brains out," concluded the Director.

The Director's fear was fully justified by the facts of Austrian life, for child-suicide is horribly frequent here. A boy gets a bad report in his examination, and he runs out remarking that he is going to kill himself—a threat only too often put into effect. A fourteen-year-old girl fears that she will be discovered to be the author of an improper note, which the teacher has intercepted, and throws herself out of a fifth-floor window. Another, still younger, does the same thing, because she is not given the full and formal courtesy accorded to her mature sister. It was a rare month this winter when Vienna had not to record at least the attempted suicide of one or more school-children.

These being facts, one may admit that the Austrian child is more learned than his American fellow, and yet hope earnestly that the day is far distant when anything like the Austrian-German's methods and ideals of education shall prevail in America. And are the Imperial German's methods and ideals so very different from those of his brother over the border?

AN AMERICAN TEACHER.

VIENNA, June 20, 1900.

Notes.

'A History of Political Parties in the United States,' by James H. Hopkins, is to be published directly by G. P. Putnam's Sons, who announce also 'A Book for All Readers,' by Ainsworth R. Spofford.

Dodd, Mead & Co.'s autumn announcements include a book of verses by Carolyn Wells, with illustrations by Oliver Herford; 'Wanted: A Matchmaker,' a Christmas story by Paul Leicester Ford; and a series, to be denominated "Bookman Classics," of ornamental editions of 'The Sentimental Journey,' 'Robinson Crusoe,' 'The Scarlet Letter,' and other "principal examples of English prose and verse in pure literature that have successfully stood the test of time."

Macmillan Co. will soon have ready 'The Venetian Republic; Its Rise, its Growth, and its Fall,' by W. Carew Hazlitt.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly publish a history of France in French for American schools, based by Prof. O. B. Super on Ducoudray and Feillet's 'Récits d'Histoire de France."

'An Alphabet of Indians,' drawings by the late Emery Leavitt Williams, with a descriptive text by Mrs. Williams, is to be published in the autumn by R. H. Russell.

'What We Know of Genesis in the Light of Modern Thought,' by the Rev. Edward Worcester, D.D., of Philadelphia, will appear in the autumn, with the imprint of McClure, Phillips & Co., as will 'The Schools and Society,' by Prof. John Dewey of the University of Chicago.

The Baker & Taylor Company will shortly bring out 'Expansion, under New World-Conditions,' by Josiah Strong; 'The Trusts: What Can We Do with Them? What Can They Do for Us?' by William Miller Collier; 'Short-Story Writing,' by Charles Raymond Barrett; 'The Real David Harum,' by Arthur T. Vance; and 'The Salt-Box House: Eighteenth-Century Life in a New England Hill Town,' by Jane De Forest Shelton.

Mrs. Jane Baldwin, Annapolis, Md., invites subscriptions to 'The Maryland Calendar of Wills'—"a ready, accurate and complete abstract of the wills probated in Maryland from the time of its settlement, 1634, to the American Revolution." The five bound numbers will be sold at $3 singly, or $13.50 for the set, before September 1. The edition will be limited to 300 copies.

Fielding's 'Tom Jones,' in two large volumes of Macmillan's handsome "Library of English Classics," follows the edition of 1750, which was revised by the author, and was reproduced by Murphy in 1762. The present editor, Mr. Pollard, has but a slender bibliographical tale to relate of a work which attained popularity on the instant.

War, which, to the superficial, appears to make demands only on the able-bodied patriot, begins by aggravating the ills of the most needy classes in the community. Sir Henry Burdett, in the preface to his authoritative manual and directory styled 'Burdett's Hospitals and Charities' for 1900 (London: The Scientific Press; New York; Scribners), speaks of the diversion to the South African war-fund of charitable moneys that were counted upon for hospitals. The London institutions, which need annually $750,000 in donations, have found them "almost ceased of late." This is the eleventh year of publication of an admirable year-book.

The jubilee of Sir George Gabriel Stokes, Bart., has been commemorated by the publication of a volume of 'Memoirs' presented to the Cambridge Philosophical Society on that occasion. It opens with an account of the proceedings at the formal celebration of the jubilee by the University of Cambridge, including a list of the institutions represented and of the delegates. Among the names of persons upon whom was conferred the degree of doctor of science is that of Professor Albert Abraham Michelson.

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Following the introductory portion is the Rede lecture, "On the Theory of Luminous Waves: Its Influence on Modern Physics," by Alfred Cornu of Paris. There are memoirs in English, French, and German by Forsyth, Poincaré, Boltzmann, and other eminent mathematicians and physicists. The American contributors are Ernest W. Brown of Haverford College, who writes on "The Solution of a Pair of Simultaneous Linear Differential Equations which Occur in the Lunar Theory," and A. A. Michelson of the University of Chicago, whose paper on the "Échelon Spectroscope" appears to be an uncredited reprint from the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences for November, 1899. A half-tone portrait of Sir George Stokes forms a frontispiece to the book.

On the 29th of June, the faculty of letters of the University of Paris conferred the new degree of Doctor of the University, *summa cum laude*, upon Freeman M. Josselyn jr., A.B., Boston University, '98, being the second American to receive this honor. Advised by the head of the Romance department of Boston University to continue his studies in Paris rather than in Germany, as is customary for American students even when making a specialty of Romance work, Mr. Josselyn at once placed himself under Gaston Paris, Paul Meyer, Antoine Thomas, the Abbé Rousselot, and others hardly less distinguished at the Sorbonne and Collège de France for their scholarship in philology and phonetics. His thesis, 'Étude sur la Phonétique Italienne' (Paris: Albert Fontemoing), consists of 175 large octavo pages, with 232 photographic reproductions of vowel and consonant tests made upon an aluminum cylinder revolving by clockwork, and is a distinct contribution to the subject of experimental phonetics in general, and in particular as applied to Italian. The tongue positions are most accurately shown by means of a large number of cuts reproducing experiments made with the artificial palate, along the same lines as the well-known ones made by Prof. Grandgent in his 'German and English Sounds.' With the exception of the Abbé Rousselot's work in 'La Parole' and 'Les Principes de Phonétique Expérimentale,' no such thorough analysis of experimental methods has as yet been published. At the last meeting of the Board of Trustees of Boston University, Mr. Josselyn was appointed instructor in Romance languages in that institution.

In 1895 Dr. Roman Woerner of the University of Munich published an academical dissertation, or, "Habilitations-Schrift," on "Henrik Ibsen's Jugenddramen," in the preface to which he expressed his intention of preparing an elaborate critical biography of the Norwegian dramatist in two volumes. The first of these volumes, entitled 'Henrik Ibsen' (Munich: Beck), and embracing the first forty-five years of the poet's life (1828-1873), has just appeared. In the introduction the author gives a succinct but very satisfactory survey of the development of Norwegian literature, especially since the separation of Norway from Denmark and its union with Sweden in 1814. Even during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when Norway was politically only a Danish province, the cultivation of Danish literature was promoted chiefly by Norwegians residing in Copenhagen, among whom Holberg, the creator of the modern Danish drama, held the most prominent place. Of Ibsen's immediate predecessors, Welhaven, Wergeland, and his highly gifted sister, Camilla Collett, a brilliant novelist and pioneer in the advocacy of woman's rights, were the most eminent and influential representatives of Scandinavian letters. Dr. Woerner's work is not so much a biographical sketch as a critical study, into which the events of Ibsen's life are skilfully woven. The present volume contains keen and comprehensive analyses of a dozen plays, beginning with "Catiline" and ending with "Emperor and Galilean." The concluding chapter, on "Ibsen's Language and Poems," is extremely interesting from a philological, as well as from a literary point of view. It traces the evolution and distinct nationalization of Norwegian and its differentiation from Danish, with which it was once almost identical, as the result of political independence, and shows the influence of German on Ibsen's style and phraseology. We have also an excellent appreciation of Ibsen's lyrics, many of which are translated.

Mr. Solberg, Register of Copyrights, has just issued the third Bulletin of his office, entitled 'Copyright Enactments, 1783-1900.' This is a very convenient conspectus, going back to the Copyright Resolution of the Colonial Congress, May 2, 1783, which had been anticipated (as an injunction to the States to secure copyright to authors and publishers) by Connecticut with its act of January, 1783. Massachusetts followed suit on March 17, Maryland April 23, etc. Rhode Island copied the Massachusetts act verbatim, even to the preamble. This collection embraces further the Presidential proclamations regarding international copyright.

A more than local serviceability attaches to the new "Finding-List of Genealogies and Town and Local Histories containing Family Records in the Public Library of the City of Boston.' This is the third state of the list published by the Library in October, 1891, as elaborated by the late Arthur M. Knapp and lastly by Miss Agnes C. Doyle; and a further enlargement is contemplated. The present list fills eighty pages in bold display.

The June number of the Bulletin of the New York Public Library continues its publication of Letters and Papers of Andrew Jackson, whose illiteracy and literary incapacity give him a prime distinction among our Presidents. The examples of this in the Bulletin's selection are very amusing. One sentiment in a letter to Major W. B. Lewis, dated March 31, 1824, is as sound as it is now old-fashioned: "I have no doubt if I was to travel to Boston where I have been invited that it would insure my election—But this I cannot do—I would feel degraded the ballance of my life- If I ever fill that office it must be the free choice of the people—I can then say I am the President of the Nation- and my acts shall comport with that character." These be hard sayings for McKinley-Hanna or for Bryan. And again, to the same, January 21, 1825: "I therefore at present can give you no information with regard to the result of the election of President, one thing you will believe, that I will have no agency in unions, combinations, or intrigue to get there."

Mr. J. Henry Lea's "Genealogical Gleanings among the English Archives," now in course of publication in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, are wholly occupied in the July issue with the family of William Penn, and "considerably enlarge and correct the pedigree as hitherto known." An English genealogist, Mr. William Ferguson Irvine, supplies an entry from the parish register of Warrington which may possiby record the marriage of the parents of the Rev. Richard Mather.

In pursuance of research in early abolition history, Miss Alice Dana Adams has traced as far as possible complete sets of (a) the Minutes of the twenty-one sessions of the American Convention for Promoting the Abolition of Slavery, etc. (1794-1829), and (b) Benjamin Lundy's paper, the *Genius of Universal Emancipation*. In no one place does she find all together, but as a convenience to fellow-students and for further aid in turning up the third volume of the *Genius* (June, 1823-October, 1824), nowhere discovered, Miss Adams prints her lists, with whereabouts, in the July number of the *American Historical Review*. Her address is No. 93 Hancock Street, Auburndale, Mass.

The "Boxer" Society is described by Mr. L. J. Davies, in the *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for July, apparently from information derived from Chinese sources. The organization is divided into local "ying," or encampments, which meet regularly for drill, the recitation of incantations, and the initiation of new members. If the rules are strictly obeyed, the members become invulnerable, according to the popular belief, against bullets and knives. "Several intelligent Chinese have told me that they had themselves seen advanced members of the society strike different parts of their bodies with sharp knives and swords, with no more effect upon the skin than is produced by the wind." If any are killed, it is because they have broken the rules, as, for instance, by eating certain proscribed articles of food. Mr. W. E. Curtis concludes his account of his South American trip by sketches of some of the peculiar features of the cities of Cuzco and La Paz. A curious village scene was that of a row of ten or twelve women squatting in a churchyard facing an equal number of surly looking men. "Between the two was a rude cross, held upright by a few stones laid against its base and trimmed with artificial flowers." The men "were charged by their wives with drunkenness, abuse, neglect, and improvidence, and the village priest would hear the evidence, render judgment, and administer correction the next morning at eight o'clock"; the correction consisting of a beating for the worst offenders, and various forms of penance for the others.

Milton's "two-handed engine at the door," in his 'Lycidas,' is plainly enough a sword, and the allusion can hardly be said to be relieved of its obscurity by citation of a possible source of the image. A correspondent in the *Athenæum* of June 30 compares a passage from Sylvester's Du Bartas (1621), which describes the effective "two-hand sword" of

"A sacred Fencer 'gainst the Assyrians sent"

by the Almighty; there being a marginal reference to the smiting of the camp of the Assyrians in 2 Kings xix. 35.

Dr. Otto Braun, who died at Munich on June 10, was one of the twenty-four literary men portrayed in Paul Heyse's 'Das litterarische München,' and for nearly a score of years a prominent figure in the intellectual and social life of the Bavarian capital. He was born at Cassel, August 1, 1824, and devoted himself at first to the study of law and afterwards to that of history and literature in the Universities of Bonn, Hei-

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delberg, and Marburg. As a student, he took an active part in the Revolution of 1848 in Hessia, where this movement was strongly provoked and greatly needed. In 1850 he was forced into exile by the return of the reactionary party to power, and spent several years alternately in Paris and Madrid. In 1860 he joined the editorial staff of the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung* (transferred to Munich in 1882), and was editor-in-chief of this influential journal from 1869 to 1889. His tastes and talents led him to give special attention to the *Beilage* (literary and scientific supplement), which he brought to a remarkable degree of perfection and continued to conduct till 1891. Since that date he had edited the *Musenalmanach*, published by Cotta in Stuttgart, a revival of the famous annual issued by Schiller from 1796 to 1801. Dr. Braun was an ardent lover of Spanish literature, and his volume of poems, entitled 'Aus Allerlei Tonarten,' of which a second enlarged edition appeared in 1898, consists in part of excellent translations from the Spanish. His villa in Munich he bequeathed to the Schillerstiftung for the benefit of needy authors.

—*Harper's* for July has an illustrated article on "English War-Correspondents in South Africa," by Fred. A. McKenzie. Of these, Mr. Steevens was, perhaps, the only one who attained any professional distinction. Mr. Winston Spencer Churchill "added greatly to his laurels," but then his laurels are not purely literary; he is a politico-social figure, besides being a soldier, and "already one hears mutterings from young men, tired of the older political parties, who look to him to lead them in a new political movement." Neither of those two represents the latest type, which is hard to describe, but which is well known. It is hit off here as the man-ready-to-start. He has two outfits, ready either for high or for low latitudes, both of which are kept packed. If there is to be a coronation, say, in St. Petersburg in the middle of the winter, and his employer wires him, "Go to St. Petersburg," he wires to his faithful wife or housekeeper. "Cold bag; Charing Cross, twelve o'clock." If, on the other hand, the "trouble" is in South Africa, he wires, "Hot bag," instead of cold bag, and enters upon his mission. To this it should be added—and anybody may verify the statement by reading what he writes—that in nine cases out of ten besides energy in locomotion, willingness to take risks, and fluency, no moral or intellectual equipment whatever is required of him. Publishers, it is said, are wondering why "khaki" literature has fallen so flat. One reason is that good reading cannot be produced in this way, and yet the war correspondent is only the exaggerated type of a lately evolved species of magazine and newspaper writers, who possess the art of working up subjects to order at a moment's notice. In the same number of the magazine is a second instalment of "A Journey to the Abyssinian Capital," by Capt. M. S. Wellby. Outside the pictorial illustrations, there is almost nothing in it that adds to our knowledge of Abyssinia; tons of stuff of the same weight and texture appear in the magazines about out-of-the-way places, all the year round. James Buckham's two pages on "Nonhygienic Gymnastics" are worth reading, as is "To-day's Science in Europe: Prof. Ernest Haeckel and the New Zoölogy," by Dr. Henry Smith Williams. In the latter the writer justly says that the question "why" either man or the Pithecanthropus "evolved at all" is as yet unsettled by the new zoölogy.

—*Scribner's* leading article is on "The Slave Trade in America," the first of a series of papers by John R. Spears, with illustrations by Walter Appleton Clark. Mr. Spears shows historically that the slave trade, as it originally existed in Africa, was a mild and humane commerce compared with what the white man made of it in two or three generations. As soon as it became apparent—towards the middle of the last century—that the West India market for slaves was a steadily increasing one, the white slavers (who had hitherto been unwilling to do more than incite the natives to bring in slaves, of whom they were assumed to have the right to dispose) began themselves to organize slave-catching raids. In these the whites developed a really extraordinary capacity for treachery and crime of the most revolting character. It is a horrible chapter in the story of human greed, and worth retelling from time to time, "lest we forget." A noticeable article on "Trees," by Frank French, is accompanied by interesting illustrations drawn and engraved by the writer. The paper which will, perhaps, attract most attention is Senator Hoar's "Harvard College Fifty-eight Years Ago," which contains sketches of many noted men —Professor Channing, Dr. Walker, Dr. Beck, "Old Quin," Professor Sophocles, and others, with some good anecdotes. Oddly enough, the writer declares his opinion to be that the one member of his class (and it contained a good many men of distinction) whose fame will last to "remote posterity" is Walter Mitchell, author of the poem, "Tacking Ship off Fire Island." The article is interesting as a picture of the college in the period just before the present, when it was more or less a type of the American college as it had existed for a hundred years, when it was still a denominational institution, and electives were not, and freshmen were boys of fourteen. It is amusing to read that in that day the professors did nothing to "encourage familiarity," or even to encourage any request for assistance in study. "Indeed, a boy who did that fell into disfavor with his companions, and was called a fish."

—Richard Whiteing's articles on "The Paris of To-day" appearing in the *Century*, are, it may be presumed, to come out as a book. No one could fail to find in them something to arouse his attention or add to his stock of information. It is, of course, France seen through Anglo-Saxon eyes; but then, no Anglo-Saxon will ever see it by means of any other species of eye. In "Artistic Paris," Mr. Whiteing gives his account of the serious side of a life of which a somewhat different view is to be obtained in 'Trilby.' What he insists upon is that, in Paris, art is a profession, a guild, to which one who enters upon it devotes himself as with us to law or medicine. "A lad who goes to school at the London Royal Academy goes for his teaching and no more. He still follows his earlier way of life and his social traditions, and his day's work is only one of the things of the day." On the other hand, a lad who enters the Beaux-Arts, at once belongs to a students' corps. "He is a new man. The tomfooleries of the reception by the class—so often described—have still a meaning. It is not merely that the freshman has to sing a song by order, to do the meanest 'chores,' and generally to make an ass of himself. The real purpose is to take the nonsense of mere individualism out of him, and to make him feel that, hereafter, he belongs to a fraternity." Mr. Whiteing also discusses literary art as practised in Paris, and draws an amusing parallel between the English (and American) "gentleman" and the French ideal of the perfect writer. We have bothered our heads, it seems, from Chesterfield to Thackeray, with the perfection of conduct; troubling ourselves but little with literary art; while the French, in the same period, indifferent to character, have been perfecting a theory of style. "Our greatest stress of admiration lies in the domain of manners; theirs in the domain of the arts." We all know that a gentleman is full of consideration for others, a foe to violence of opinion or expression, an enemy, at the same time, of restraint, suspicion, gloom, or resentment. He is merciful, gentle, and tender; avoids unseasonable allusions or topics; never makes himself prominent in conversation, and suppresses his own egotism. He makes light of favors which he does, and seems to receive while he confers. He is scrupulous in imputing motives, never mean or little; never takes unfair advantage, and never mistakes personalities or abuse for argument. Such is our ideal character. It is an almost complete analogue of the French ideal of style. This is what the Academy preaches; for the preservation of this tradition, among others, the Academy exists. The tragedy of French letters is, however, "that the balanced man has gone out of fashion, and that the shifting, wayward million has come into the judgment-seat. These law-givers of an hour, careless of what is true, ever demand something new, and the popular writer prefers a first place in the meanest village to a second in Rome itself." Hence, realists, naturalists, and "naturists," and decadents, and symbolists, and a host of other ephemeridæ; but the Academy still stands, and maintains the style and tradition of true art.

—The *Atlantic* contains Mr. Cleveland's second and apparently final instalment of "The Independence of the Executive." He has shown how the Senatorial encroachments of the Johnsonian period were followed, in his own time, by the "expurgation of the last vestige of statutory sanction" to such encroachments. The papers are good as far as they go, but need to be supplemented by a survey of other periods. We have seen, within the last four years, a resurgence of Senatorial arrogance, and to a certain extent an abdication of executive function with regard to the appointing power; though, of course, the encroachments made during the struggle between Johnson and Congress differed from those which have been seen since in the fact that, in the reconstruction period, there was a deliberate attempt to make them permanent by statutory means. Even to-day, a really vigorous man in the White House might restore the office to its pristine dignity and importance. Prof. Lewis E. Gates writes about "Impressionism and Appreciation," and exhibits his views of modern criticism of literature. It appears that the history of literary criti-

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cism, from Addison's day to our own, is, if viewed in one way, "the history of the ever-increasing refinement of the critic's sensorium." It is the history "of the critic's increasing sensitiveness to delicate shades of spiritual experience in his reaction on literature"; and, finally, it is the history of "a growing tendency on the part of the critic to value, above all else, his own intimate relation to this or that piece of literature"—a tendency that more and more takes the form of prizing the fleeting mood, "the passing poignant moment of enjoyment in the presence of art"—"until at last certain modern critics refuse, on principle, to feel twice alike about the same poem." So far have we travelled since Addison's time, and indeed since day before yesterday; for, in the light of impressionism, what was poor Matthew Arnold with his canons of criticism, and his insistence on "seeing the thing as it is," but a dullard? He who once highly resolves never to feel twice alike about the same poem, has indeed solved the riddle of criticism. Mr. Howells is at his best in "A Difficult Case."

—Dr. James MacKinnon claims for his 'History of Edward III.' (Longmans) "the merit of a conscientious study of the materials bearing on this important period of English history." He even goes further: "I shall be disappointed if the critic does not agree with me that the work may claim to be an independent contribution to the history of Edward III." In support of his plea for consideration, he points to the footnotes where references to Rymer's 'Fœdera,' various volumes of the Rolls Series, the principal French chroniclers, Villani, etc., shine forth in great brilliance and profusion. We shall not deny Dr. MacKinnon the merit of having read widely during the period of preparation, but when he comes to writing, he is afflicted by a touch of jauntiness which is undeniably irritating. Were his book originally published in New York, more than one English review would condemn it for abuse of the English language after the fashion usual with Americans. As it is, we can only say that the style often approaches more nearly to slang than we should expect a professed work of erudition, published in Great Britain, to do. "The Bishop of Lincoln did a roaring business"; "it was a good dodge"; "renewed inward risible shakings"; "had John Bull [*passim*] resolutely brought down his fist"—such expressions are constantly used in the hope of lightening the text. With the same view to picturesqueness, the exclamation mark is profusely employed, and on p. 614, where Dr. MacKinnon quotes an opinion of Hallam on fourteenth-century chivalry, three notes of interjection are put in line one after another. Altogether, on pp. 614-15, six of these signs of excitement appear. We may mention one or two other irregularities, or inconsistencies, which become apparent at the first reading. While we admit the difficulty of being rigidly consistent in the spelling of European proper names, the following *mélange* of forms on the same page, 105, seems singular: "Ludwig of Bavaria . . . the electorates of Cologne, Treves, and Maintz." On p. 461 the same person is styled "Abbé de Clugny" and, a little lower down, "Abbot of Clugny." Many things show that Dr. MacKinnon has a facile pen, but "easy writing" has been properly estimated in a celebrated epigram. Regarding this work from the standpoint of serious history, we may state that it is almost wholly a narrative of events in which the relations of England with Scotland and France occupy the prominent place. Despite the array of footnotes, it could not have been an arduous work to complete. It is a useful account of the reign, based for the most part on the chroniclers; but it hardly justifies the tone which the author takes in the first paragraph of his preface.

—'Die Renaissance in Florenz und Rom,' by Karl Brandi (Leipzig: Teubner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), is a neatly printed book containing eight essays—four on the early Renaissance at Florence, and four on the Renaissance in its full maturity at Rome. Though popular in form, these studies are the productions of a scholar who knows the writings of Burckhardt, Voigt, and Gaspary (besides something of their sources), and of a critic who has followed the development of Italian art, historically, through all its phases from Giotto to Michelangelo. The treatment is largely biographical, for the author never loses sight of the individual master when discussing the part of the great movement with which he is connected. The central idea is, that the Renaissance can be best understood through a knowledge of its manifestations at the two capitals which, by common consent, stand forth most prominently in the intellectual life of Italy during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In his Florentine chapters Herr Brandi takes up Dante and the End of the Middle Ages, Florentine Society and Humanism, the Artists of the Fifteenth Century, and the Sway of the Medici. The Roman topics are the Principality of the Popes, Raphael, Michelangelo, and the End of the Renaissance. The characteristic feature of the book is a method which involves the presentation of many important points as well as persons, with a consequent compression of what is said concerning each. A large number of the really important subjects are considered in a way which is both clear and brief without being bald. We have nothing in English of a corresponding nature, and it would be well if we had—an introduction to the Renaissance which should condescend to give some distinct statements of fact, yet contrive to reach a higher level than that of the ordinary manual. Herr Brandi has written a book which no beginner would find difficulty in mastering, and which readers of Symonds and Pater could not call hackneyed. Lacking a volume of similar stamp in our own language, we should be pleased to see a translation of these lucid and attractive essays.

PALGRAVE'S DICTIONARY OF POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Dictionary of Political Economy. Edited by R. H. Inglis Palgrave, F. R. S. Macmillan & Co. Vol. I. A-E. 1894, pp. xv, 800. Vol. II. F-M. 1896, pp. xvi, 848. Vol. III. N-Z. 1899, pp. xxii, 762.

The completion of Mr. Palgrave's arduous undertaking, the successive stages of which have been noticed from time to time in these columns, presents a convenient occasion for a general survey of the work and for some account of its scope and character. This is the more desirable because, owing to the piecemeal method of its publication, it may perhaps not at first secure the success which it unquestionably deserves.

Mr. Palgrave's Dictionary is one of the most interesting evidences of that revival of economic studies in England which marked the beginning of the decade just come to an end. It was in 1890 that the British Economic Association was founded; and if this has done little more than support the *Economic Journal*, it has thereby performed a most useful service. It was in that same year that Mr. Palgrave, known among economists hitherto chiefly for his writings on banking, set about creating for English readers an economic encyclopædia worthy to be placed by the side of those of Conrad and Chailley. Dictionaries of this sort must always be somewhat unsatisfactory; the articles can hardly fail to bear the marks of writing to order; and statistics and bibliographies soon become antiquated. And yet they may be helpful for a good many years to several distinct classes of readers: and that which bears Mr. Palgrave's name is certainly in some respects more valuable than those of his French and German rivals.

For purposes of comparison we may quickly put on one side the 'Nouveau Dictionnaire' of Say and Chailley. That is avowedly the manifesto of a school, "a small group of collaborateurs united in a common doctrine," of whom "none has written a word without having come to an agreement with the editors as to the main outlines of his teaching." Unity might be strength, were it not that "the common doctrine" suffers from the incurable superficiality of thought, the invincible satisfaction with a narrow range of ideas and information, which have gone far to destroy the influence of the *Journal des Économistes* and the circle associated with it. Conrad's 'Handwörterbuch' is far more scholarly in its execution as well as more catholic in its contents, and this last in spite of the allotment of the article Political Economy to Professor Gustav Schmoller, the leader of the historical school. In these respects the German and the English dictionaries stand on the same level. The prevailing tone in Conrad, indeed, is that of the German historical school; the prevailing tone in Palgrave is that of what—simply for convenience—we may call the moderate orthodox English tradition, as it is represented by such a writer as Professor Marshall. Mr. Marshall, it is true, has not himself contributed to Palgrave's pages, but his influence is evident in several of the younger men who have written here, especially, of course, in the theoretical articles, as, for instance, that by Mr. Johnson on Supply and Demand.

Mathematical economics, though they have scarcely any vogue in England, are treated with great respect, partly, no doubt, because they do but attempt to formulate and carry further, by the use of a special organon, the customary method of deduction from a few abstract premises; partly because of the part Professor Edgeworth has himself taken in the preparation of the Dictionary. One of the most noticeable features of the book is the series of articles by Professor Edgeworth on Cournot, Dupont, Gossen, and Fleeming Jenkin, and on Curves, Functions, and Mathematical Method. But the historical economists are treated with kindliness, and even permitted to contribute an occasional article. They are shown their proper place with unmistakable emphasis by more than one of their collaborateurs; and a singular error is frequently imputed to them, namely,

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that "the mere accumulation of economic facts constitutes political economy" (iii., 556). Still, the policy of the Dictionary is to be scrupulously fair, and on the whole it succeeds in its purpose of "enabling the student to understand the position of economic thought at the present time."

If we may continue to compare it with Conrad's 'Handwörterbuch,' we may next notice that, in spite of its far more restricted space, it contains many more articles. Thus, even the new edition of Conrad has only 122 entries under A, while Palgrave has 206. The larger number is brought about, partly by the splitting up of many of the main rubrics of economic treatises into a number of separate topics; partly by the inclusion of a group of articles on legal subjects and on matters of political theory; partly by the addition of a series of definitions of terms used in business, such as Average (maritime) or Charter party, or occurring in historical treatises. Of necessity, then, the articles are much briefer than in Conrad; and, as a result, the work remains truer to its name of Dictionary, and does not become, as Conrad's volumes tend to do, a series of monographs. And although not a few of the entries are open to criticism, if for no other reason than that no one would think of looking for them—as, for instance, Facts, Forethought, Habit, Good for Trade, Observation, Optimism, and Pessimism on the side of theory, and such trivialities as Churchseed and Fish-silver on the side of history—still, the number and brevity of the articles will make the Dictionary a very handy work of reference for the shelves of every economist and financier.

It is, perhaps, an open question in what way disputed questions of theory should be handled. Most of those under the earlier letters are from the pen of Professor Nicholson of Edinburgh; those under the later are mostly by younger men, and show the growing influence of Professor Marshall's treatise. It may, however, be urged that, in a work of this kind, it is fair to give one view without any indication of opposing theories only when that view is practically in possession of the field among competent economists. This is a rule pretty consistently observed in these volumes; it is the greater pity, therefore, that the article on Distribution, Law of, from the pen of an American economist, Prof. J. B. Clark, should be confined to a brief exposition of Professor Clark's own views. And while we are referring to questions of theory, attention may be called to the curious circumstance that, in spite of the constant affirmation throughout the Dictionary of the prime importance of theoretical inquiries, it does not contain any article on the theory of wages beyond an historical and critical account of the wage-fund doctrine. This is probably a mere oversight, but we can imagine an historical economist making merry over it.

There are many excellent articles on social history, including some contributed by Professor Maitland, and careful and sober articles on fundamental institutions, like Property, many of them by Professor Montague. Indeed, there is good reading of many sorts. But the scholar will find the chief excellence of the Dictionary in another and rather unexpected direction, and that is, in the series of biographical articles. Of some of them, especially on the minor figures, the preparation has involved a good deal of original investigation, with the not unnatural result, under a lenient editor, that the text has sometimes been burdened with details and references quite out of place in such a work. Others, again, are broadly planned surveys of great writers, some of whom find themselves for the first time treated seriously as having influenced economic thought. As none of the indices, including the elaborate topical one at the end of the third volume, assign the articles to their several writers, it may be well to give a list in this place of the more considerable pieces of work of a biographical-critical character. The judgments expressed are sometimes of doubtful validity, and a common fault is to exaggerate the importance of individuals through sheer ignorance of the contemporary environment. But all the articles in the following list possess merit of one sort or another.

Professor Edgeworth, then, besides those already mentioned, furnishes articles on James Mill and John Stuart Mill (with an analysis of the latter's 'Principles' and a running commentary); Mr. James Bonar on Babbage, Bentham, Chalmers, Cobbett, Comte and English Political Economy, Hermann, Hegel, Kant, Locke, Malthus (19 columns), and Adam Smith (with an elaborate analysis of the 'Wealth of Nations,' occupying 18 columns of minute type); Professor Ritchie of St. Andrews on Aristotle, Grotius, Locke, Plato, and Savigny; Professor Gide of Montpellier on Roman Catholic School of Political Economy, French School, Proudhon, J. B. Say, St. Simon, and Vauban. Dr. Ingram of Dublin besides a number of brief notices of minor German writers which are practically transcripts from Roscher, writes on Lassalle, List, Marx, Positivism, Rodbertus, Stein (Freiherr vom), Steuart, and Thompson; the late Professor Dunbar of Harvard on Carey, Dana Horton, and Francis Walker (the last an exemplary article in substance and form; *O, si sic omnes!*); Professor Oncken of Berne on Iselin, Mauvillon, and Roscher; Professor Ashley of Harvard on Aquinas, Rowland Hill, Historical School of Economists, Luther, Oresme, and Vives; M. Castelot on Gournay, Pufendorf, Rümelin, Spanish School of Political Economy, and Uztariz; Mr. J. D. Rogers on Owen, Tucker, Swift (an attempt to justify his 'Drapier's Letters'), Temple, and Violet; Professor Montague of University College, London, on Hobbes, Toynbee, and Tocqueville; Professor Lindsay of Philadelphia on Hildebrand, Soetbeer, and Amasa Walker; Miss Foley (Mrs. Rhŷs-Davids) on Rousseau and Vanderlint; Mr. Henry Higgs on Cantillon, Le Play, Mirabeau, Turgot; Dr. Bauer of Vienna on Barbon, Cantillon, and *Éphémérides*; Mr. H. E. Egerton on Hume, Leclaire, Maurice, Senior, and Whately. The following writers contribute one biographical article apiece worth mentioning here: Mr. Crump of the Record Office on Fustel de Coulanges; Professor Dewey of Boston on Hamilton; Miss Dixon on Massie; Dr. Devine of Philadelphia on Daniel Webster; Professor Gonner of Liverpool on Ricardo; Professor Greven of Leyden on Dutch School of Economists; Professor Hewins on Mun; Miss Law on Lord Sheffield; Mr. Keynes of Cambridge on Cairnes; Professor Loridi of Padua on Italian School of Economists; Miss McArthur of Cambridge on Charles Kingsley; Professor Miklachewsky of Kharhoff on Russian School of Political Economy; Professor Nicholson of Edinburgh on his predecessor, Hodgson; Mr. A. L. Smith of Balliol on Yarranton; Mr. Sanger on Leon Walras (the one living economist admitted), and Mr. Wicksteed on Jevons. To Mr. Palgrave himself we are probably indebted for the estimate of Bagehot and for the elaborate footnote on Whewell; some of the shorter footnotes, also apparently due to the editor, might, however, have been omitted with slight loss. It will have been observed that many of the names in this list are of foreign scholars, and the articles contributed by Professors Dunbar, Gide, and Oncken are especially workmanlike. The same can hardly be said of the biographical notices by M. Courtois, "formerly Secrétaire Perpétuel de la Société d'Économie Politique de Paris," who seems to have set himself to justify the strictures of his countryman, M. Gide, on the Parisian economists. He cannot write the briefest notice without sermonizing and without measuring his subject by the yard-measure of orthodoxy. His article on Wolowski, however, is a useful statement.

As the above list shows, American scholarship is well represented in the Dictionary. Besides the articles already enumerated, attention may be called to those of the late President Walker on Money (17 columns); of Professor Mayo-Smith on Immigration, Statistical Method, Wages, Statistics of (in America), and Workmen's Budgets (in America); of Professor Taussig on Inflation in the U. S., and Stationary State; of Professor Jenks on Homestead Laws, Local Government in the U. S., and Monopolies; of Professor Lindsay on Latin Union, Monetary Conferences, Precious Metals, Prices, and Silver; of Mr. Graham Brooks on State Insurance in Germany; of President Hadley on the Interstate Commerce Law; Professor Seligman on Graduated Taxation; and Professor Andrews on the Land System in the American Colonies.

Enough has been said to show the very real value of this Dictionary—the worthy result of Mr. Palgrave's assiduous employment of all the leisure he could spare from the duties of a country banker for a period of twelve years; persisted in in spite of many obstacles, and, in these latter years, as a solace in the midst of grief. It would be possible to say a good deal of the unevenness of the work, and of various little defects in editorial art. But most of these are the results of Mr. Palgrave's (possibly excessive) urbanity and patience. The work is in most respects—and especially as a tool for the constant handling of the scholar—so signally successful, and, where it is deficient, its defects are so largely those of the contemporary English and American scholarship which it reflects, that the reviewer does not feel inclined to conclude with anything but an expression of gratitude.

Boys and Men: A Story of Life at Yale. By Richard Holbrook. Scribners.

Smith College Stories. By Josephine D. Daskam. Scribners.

Kate Wetherill: An Earth Comedy. By Jennette Lee. The Century Co.

A Friend of Cæsar: A Tale of the Fall of the Roman Republic. By William Stearns Davis. The Macmillan Co.

Mr. Holbrook's 'Boys and Men' is a clum-

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sy effort to foist a love-plot on a study of manners, with the help of a narrative style lacking in finish and certainty. As a consequence, readers who do not find the matter uninteresting are likely to find the manner intensely so, and a few unhappy mortals will be repelled by both. There seems to be no lack, however, of good intent on the author's part. He tried to deal out even-handed justice to all sides and aspects of Yale life and character. Logically, indeed, his work might be described as an attempt at complete enumeration, with all the pitfalls and dangers incident to that method of demonstration. But the incidents lack reality, the characters lack the one touch of nature, and the whole lacks the nameless grace that we call, for want of a better term, literary quality. A certain coarseness, too, flavors the whole book, making itself most painfully felt, not in characterization, nor even in efforts at dramatic effect, but in passages of description.

Miss Daskam's title is a misnomer, its preface is misleading; for the stories are not simple, and they are not about Smith College. If, indeed, it be possible that there is in the world of fact or fiction a place satisfactorily known as Smith, these or any other stories might find a suitable setting there. A college by common consent is an educational institution; it has a faculty, a course of study, aims, purposes, discipline, and ideals. These are the background of the happenings we are pleased to call stories of the collegiate type. In Miss Daskam's book they are all conspicuous by their absence. There is always in evidence a swarming, excited, and exciting crowd of young women, low-shoed and shirtwaisted, intent on "making" clubs, elections, societies, successes of all sorts, except the academic, and desperately sensitive to the criticism of everybody except the faculty or officers of government. These are some three or four times incidentally referred to as the natural butts of student wit, the pivot of a clever epigram, or the casual reference for a low-spirited estimate of faculty intelligence and integrity. As studies in local color, allowing for this fundamental inaccuracy, the stories fall into three classes—such as might have happened anywhere, such as might have happened at "Smith's," and such as could have happened nowhere. It is only fair to the business interests of the author to leave her readers to make their own assignment to these classes.

For the rest, the stories have a certain rhetorical tang and go, due to a clever manipulation of verbal associations, quite the reverse of the simplicity promised in the preface. The intending reader may be sure of interest that will keep him expectant until he possibly sees through the illusion so elaborately constructed for him, or more likely comes to the end of the collection and drops the volume into the list and limbo of books for summer reading. And yet we are told that this prophet is not without honor in her own country, that her picture is accepted by graduates and students of Smith College as a truthful and, above all, a sane one. We fancy, however, that none of them would maintain that this is the book they are looking for about any woman's college, still less about their own. In avoiding some undesirable features in her picture, the author has unquestionably omitted some capital and essential ones.

The little red book of scant two hundred pages, 'Kate Wetherill,' is not content with the paraphrased allusion of its double title to Dante's poem. It is in three parts, headed Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise, and it quotes from the epistle to Can Grande in justification of its matter and manner. This use of Dante, not to mention an unacknowledged quotation from Browning, is quite unjustified by anything in the story. At least we were forthwith impelled to wonder why the author had not advertised her wares by reference to Milton, and cited for their interpretation passages from the 'Areopagitica' and the tractate on Divorce. Kate Wetherill would certainly have gone far to explain the grounds of Milton's most extreme theories on divorce, while certain passages of the 'Areopagitica' can always be depended on to divert attention from a particular book to books in general. But the honest reader must come to the book itself after all the references, comments, and dedications; and when he asks himself what he has before him, he will, if he is one of the plain people, probably say, a very disagreeable story about very disagreeable and very strange persons. If he is one of the custom-made readers of modern literature, he may call it strong; and if he is, without fear or favor, simply a story-reader, he will complain that the plot broke down in the middle and left him with a pathological study of nervous prostration for all his consolation. The more observant critic of literary method shares all these experiences by turns, and adds to them a keen consciousness of several other equally curious and conflicting motives appearing and disappearing in the book like the nervous rabbit of a prestidigitator's show. The pathological interest of the latter part of the story perhaps accounts for the use made of bedroom scenery in the opening. Indeed, since 'Robert Elsmere,' we remember no such strain on bedroom manners. Mrs. Ward, it is true, left them hardly more than a suggestion of the night side of the human spirit. Mrs. Lee has accepted all the implications of clayey tabernacles, and wrung the last drop of disgust out of a snore.

There is no reason why Greek and Roman life should not furnish the material for a large amount of fascinating fiction. If we have but few really great works in this field, the explanation is to be sought not in the poverty of the field itself, but in the fact that so few great writers have cared adequately to master the resources at hand. It can hardly be said that the famous 'Quo Vadis' displayed a complete mastery of its materials, but it had sensational elements of a nature to insure success in the market entirely apart from its fidelity to the canons either of historical truth or of literary art. Mr. Davis, to judge by his 'Friend of Cæsar,' is apparently not fully aware that the novel cannot take the place of the 'Classical Dictionary,' even with the aid of an elaborate outfit of footnotes. His love story, which is really good, would have run the race for popularity with better chance of success if its feet had not been thus encumbered; and the body of the work, too, might well have been lightened by the omission of much that apparently owes its insertion rather to a desire to furnish useful knowledge of classical antiquities than to its essential relation to the story. Some of the more animated scenes are admirably done, though the style of the book as a whole cannot be said to possess any marked degree of excellence. Of well-known historical characters presented, Cæsar is the most prominent, but Mr. Davis's conception of him cannot, for a moment, be considered as a genuine picture of the Cæsar who has come down to us in Roman history and literature. Mr. Davis blunders in no slight degree in supposing it necessary occasionally to halt and apologize for his really noble pagan characters, because they do not act as consistent Christians would have acted under similar circumstances. The reader who is not liberal enough to make due allowance for himself in such cases will hardly be propitiated by the author's special pleading. There is one passage in the book which should gain for it an honored place on the shelves of the White House. It is where Cæsar is made to say, "I have slain a hundred thousand men in Gaul. Cruel? No, for, had they lived, the great designs which the deity wills to accomplish in that country could not be executed!" Mr. Davis is young, and most of the flaws in his work are of such a nature as might readily yield to study and experience. He may yet do distinguished work in the classical field, and we hope that he will not abandon it after a single trial.

The Practice of Typography: A Treatise on the Processes of Type-making, &c. By Theodore Low De Vinne. The Century Co. 1900. 12mo, pp. 403.

The close of the century is a peculiarly fit time for a survey of the present state of the printer's art, something in the manner of Moxon's 'Mechanick Exercises,' so admirably edited by Mr. De Vinne. But there is no time in which an intelligent and would-be cultivated person ought not to welcome the present book. It is small, compact, a triumph of mechanical skill, and abundantly attractive to the eye. The information it conveys is lucidly stated in the fewest possible words. The subject is one as to which much ignorance and small curiosity prevail, even among the educated, and even in respect to the larger features of the craft. It would be pedantic to exact that one should know the ten names of the parts of a type-letter (p. 29); but what type are, in appearance, size, and composition, and how they are made, ought to be common knowledge—all the more because of the comparatively small changes in processes since the art began.

Having learned that the type-body is about an inch long, one may easily be induced to read in Mr. De Vinne's volume (p. 131) that, more exactly, the American standard "height to paper" is eleven-twelfths of an inch; and so nearly in accord with the English standard that English type can be mingled with those from American foundries, whereas French, German, and Russian type are higher, and importation and use of them are practically cut off. And if the international comparison attracts, there is the further particular of manufacture (p. 31) that the "nick" or transverse groove in the shank or body of the type is in front in American, English, and German type, at the back in French. Then there are tables (pp. 54-56) showing the names of the several classes of type in various countries, with "paragon" and "nonpareil" alone identical everywhere. "Pica," "long-primer," "brevier," point to an origin in ecclesiastical printing; "bourgeois" is

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perhaps named from the French city of Bourges (p. 66). But the names of the letter-face do not, in the latitude of the founder, coincide invariably with those of the body of the type; and this leads up to the nice matter of ordination of bodies by "points," the French Fournier leading off. His "point" or unit of vertical facial dimension was substantially that now adopted by the United States Type Founders' Association, viz., .0351+ centimetres, whereas Ambroise Firmin-Didot's substitute for Fournier is .0376+ (p. 155). The Association in question based its point on the "pica" of one of its members, the MacKellar, Smiths & Jordan Co., and Mr. De Vinne, in a footnote (*ibid.*), makes it appear probable that this firm, by inheriting Franklin's type-founding tools derived from Fournier, was instrumental in establishing here the latter's standard "point." More comprehensible to the average reader wholly unfamiliar with the technics of the printing-office are such items as that one hundred small type may be cast in a minute (p. 22); that "a large octavo page of long-primer type weighs about ten pounds, and its types are worth about three dollars" (p. 40); that a "font" (or unit of assortment) of new type, when "set out" (*i. e.*, set to the point of falling short of some character), shows about one-third of its weight remaining unused in the "case" (p. 168); and that one reason why type-founders in their specimen-books so long reproduced Cicero's Catilinian *Quousque tandem* passage was, "that Latin, as compared with English, had an excess of small and a deficiency of ascending and descending letters," so that the Latin text "had a more symmetrical look and an evener line than could be produced from an English text" (p. 44). And here is a typographic argument, which might well be heeded by Gutenberg's countrymen, in favor of the universal adoption of the Latin character (p. 185):

"With italic capitals and italic lower-case added, there are five series in every complete font of our selected [Roman] text-letter. This is a peculiarity not found in any other literary character. The older form of orientals have one series only; the modern forms of Greek, German, and Russian have but two. The capitals of German are too complex to be used alone as a display letter for titles or headings. Emphasis or display in German is made in the text either by hair-spacing the emphatic words, or by the use of an entirely different font of thick-faced letter. The poverty of all other alphabets in single or double series is in marked contrast with the affluence of the five correlated series of the roman alphabet, which enable the writer or printer to make emphasis, display, or distinction without change of size or the violation of typographical propriety. The judicious alternation of capitals, small capitals, italic, and lower-case makes printed matter readable and rememberable."

We are still far from having disclosed the full interest of Mr. De Vinne's manual. There are two main divisions, one the exemplification of the sizes of type by a most ingenious method; the history of printing and type-founding being related in gradually diminishing fonts, and closing with a very laborious and valuable chronicle of American type-foundries. Similarly, in a detailed examination of types of modern face, are intercalated framed biographies of noted printers, engravers, press-makers, and founders. The way in which all this has been fitted to the printed page is a marvel of editorial and mechanical accommodation. An admirable index makes this mass of history and biography completely available, besides unlocking the other parts of the treasury. Those who know Mr. De Vinne's views as to the hair-line will expect to meet here, *passim*, with his *Delenda est;* and his book cannot fail to draw to his side, at least for book work (job and fancy work being a law to itself), designers and founders who, with a due regard for readers' eyes and for the printer's pocket, will strive to produce characters legible to old and young, and capable of enduring the batter of handling and press-work.

Travels in England. By Richard Le Gallienne. John Lane. 1900.

This is a far more profitable book than Mr. Le Gallienne has been wont to write. The account of a leisurely journey through a lovely region, lightened with comment upon architecture, antiquities, and books suggested by each stopping-place, must give many people pleasure. A very well-selected and original itinerary this was, too; a ramble among seldom-named villages, once loved of good authors. Selborne, of course, is sacred to Gilbert White; Liphook charmed Pater and Cobbett; and (in spite of Shakspere) Stratford keeps a place for Washington Irving. At Winchester lie Izaak Walton and Jane Austen; at Hursley, John Keble; at Salisbury, Richard Jefferies, and here lived Massinger, Addison, and Fielding. Here, too, was first printed the 'Vicar of Wakefield'; and near by is Sarum, for whose use was instituted the famous "Ordinal of Offices," that became the English prayer-book. A piety like that which led our traveller to these places, took him to Winterslow because it had been the home of Hazlitt; to Bemerton for the sake of George Herbert; to Lechlade because Shelley once went boating thither; and to Kelmscott and Market-Drayton in remembrance of William Morris and Lord De Tabley. In his selection of natural scenery, Mr. Le Gallienne is equally particular, preferring the Cotswolds, the Rivers Test and Itchen, the Roman remains at Cirencester, and the Druidical ruins of Avebury to places more celebrated or grandiose. In short, the book is, for the most part, pleasant, entertaining, and even instructive, if imparting to the reader a desire to make this journey and to read again in those authors be any test.

Mr. Le Gallienne seems torn between a natural good sense and an acquired preciosity. For example, he heartily admires Irving's simplicity, and quotes at length from the 'Sketch-Book'; but adds, apologetically, "I suppose M. Huysmans and such virtuosi of the one inevitable word would think small beer of such writing." He quotes from Walton's 'Lives' a beautiful anecdote of Herbert, and is capable, himself, of writing as kindly and fitting an allusion as this to Richard Cromwell, "one of the meekest" and unhappiest of men:

"Above Richard Cromwell's vault is a large memorial tablet erected by an aged spinster daughter, and crowded with many names. As one reads these names, one grows to forget a public incompetency, in the pathos of a succession of domestic sorrows—the pathos of frustrated fatherhood; for most of these names belong to tiny children, some barely a year old, some mere breaths that came and went without a name. One can say no more of Richard, Protector, after this—one can only remember the little coffins."

But our author is not always so well balanced. Sarah Bernhardt's play-acting at Stratford is not a curious and incongruous thing to him, but a subject for rhapsody. "Of a sudden the wonder was enacting. She had bloomed in the doorway, half orchid and half queen; . . . once long ago men and women had watched Cleopatra like that." Mr. Le Gallienne would do well to forsake Huysmans for Irving altogether. He is a saner model and withal much more English.

A History of Sanskrit Literature. By Arthur A. Macdonell, M.A., Ph.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. [Literatures of the World, edited by Edmund Gosse.]

There are three standard histories of Sanskrit literature—Müller's, which is out of print and limited to one period; Weber's, which is caviare to the vulgar; and L. von Schröder's, which is an excellent amplification of Weber's, but is not translated into English. To these more or less incomplete and inaccessible works is now added, by a competent hand, an excellent condensed sketch of the whole of Sanskrit literature. Professor Macdonell is already favorably known through his 'Vedic Mythology' in Bühler's "Grundriss," and the present volume shows the same careful and conservative attitude which was exhibited in his earlier book.

After a general sketch of the language and its dialects, including a paragraph on Vedic accent, the author takes up first the religious literature of the Vedic hymns, with a supplementary chapter on the *Realien* of the period, and then continues down the whole course of the literature, with occasional translations in illustration of the various periods, completing the work with a brief account of the relation between India and the West after Alexander's conquest. Owing to the nature of the literature, much of the first part of the volume is almost identical with the matter furnished by previous histories of Indian religions, but this was unavoidable. In regard to recent attempts to overthrow existing estimates of the dates of the Vedic and epic literature, the chief bones of contention to Sanskrit scholars today, Professor Macdonell's view is extremely reasonable. He rightly says that the whole argument of those who maintain with Professor Jacobi that the Vedic period goes back to 4000 B. C., is invalidated by the assumption of a doubtful interpretation, which forms the starting-point of the theory. As for Dahlmann's absurd calculation of the date of the epic, it is dismissed with the remark that it is irreconcilable with the data of the poem and is not likely to find support among scholars. It is refreshing to find a sober-minded thinker who is not carried off his feet by either of these seductive theories.

It would have been better, perhaps, had Professor Macdonell made plainer his own position in regard to the relative age of the two Sanskrit epics. It is scarcely possible to believe that the Rāmāyana was composed without reference to a Sanskrit grammar, for one of the characters is said to speak Sanskrit like a priest, and another is praised because he had "studied grammar, and delivered a long speech without committing a single verbal mistake" (*apacabditam*). The dictum that the Rāmāyana is the "earliest epic of importance conforming to the rules of poetics" (p. 303), should be modified by the addition that in this regard it stands exactly on a par with the latest parts of the Mahābhārata. The remark on p. 307 that the Āryā metre is

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not found in the Sanskrit epics, appears to have been simply copied from Jacobi, who has twice published the same incorrect statement. A minor lapse on the part of the author is discovered by combining two sentences on pp. 150 and 166, from which it would appear that riding on horseback was unknown in the Vedic age, but "was at least known to the Rigveda." Apart, however, from these slight faults, easily to be mended in the new edition which the book deserves, this volume is worthy of all praise. It handles with sufficient independence a long and intricate development, and affords a clear and concise survey of the whole of Sanskrit (including Vedic) literature. For the general public it gives the best available history of the subject.

The Theory and Practice of Taxation. By David Ames Wells. D. Appleton & Co. 1900.

The connection of Mr. Wells with the fiscal department of the Government of the United States was without a parallel in its history. Morris and Hamilton, it is true, did much to reëstablish our credit, and to develop some kind of a system of national taxation; but their labors were necessarily limited by considerations of expediency, and they were continually interfered with by Congress. Mr. Wells, on the other hand, not only had almost autocratic power given him, but he had also an opportunity to apply it in accordance with economic principles. The burden of taxation at the close of the civil war was enormous. Taxes had been added to taxes without any comprehension on the part of Congress of the results that would follow, and only the patriotic fervor of the country prevented the system from breaking down of its own weight. The situation at last became intolerable. Congress, which had been incompetent to construct a scientific fiscal system, was equally incompetent to reform the abuses which it had established. It was, however, by this time aware of its incompetency, and was eager to comply with the popular demand for relief. President Lincoln, fortunately, was a judge of men, and, discerning Mr. Wells's capacity, he insisted on putting the whole matter of fiscal reform in his hands.

It is not improbable that the satisfactory results of intrusting the conduct of the war to the discretion of a single commander may have influenced Congress; at all events, it readily acceded to President Lincoln's proposal. For four years Mr. Wells practically had absolute control of the internal revenue of the Government. Within that period he entirely reconstructed the system. He brought order out of chaos. Hundreds of vexatious taxes were abolished, and the collection of those which remained was so simplified as to produce far more revenue with less inconvenience to the people. The principle that low taxes are more productive than high ones was never more strikingly exemplified. The story of the tax on distilled spirits will always remain one of the most remarkable chapters in the fiscal experience not only of this country, but of all countries. It has apparently passed out of the mind of the public and of legislators; but it is well that it should be set forth, as it is here, by the man who understood it most thoroughly. Even more forgotten is Mr. Wells's part in elaborating a scientific system of tariff revenue, which failed of adoption by a mere chance. It is impossible not to read of this lost opportunity without the most bitter regret. It has never returned, nor is there now any sign that it will return. But had the step then been taken, it is difficult to set any limits to the gain that our country would have made. The mere reduction of taxes would have been an inestimable relief to industry; but that would have been the least of the benefits. We should have been fairly started in the direction of free trade, and our Government might have been saved from falling into the hands of a sordid plutocracy.

These reflections may not seem altogether appropriate in a review of a treatise of this kind; but, in truth, Mr. Wells's book belongs to a past era. He died only yesterday, but the present generation of economists knew him not. He would have commanded the regard of Sully and Turgot, of Adam Smith and Peel and Gladstone; but the ideals which these men upheld are not the ideals of to-day. The distinction is not recognized, but it is of vast importance. To put it roughly, the ideal system of taxation, according to the school to which Mr. Wells belonged, is that under which the revenue of the State is obtained with the least possible expense and inconvenience to its subjects. In the opinion of the modern school, taxation should be so managed as to compel the subjects to contribute in proportion to their abilities. It is not improbable that even those who are aware of this distinction do not admit that it amounts to a repugnancy, and Mr. Wells himself does not explicitly announce it. Nevertheless, the two ideals are fundamentally opposed, and a large part of this book is taken up with arguments that prove the fundamental nature of the opposition. We may add that, in our opinion, these arguments overwhelmingly prove the case of Mr. Wells and his school, and demonstrate the hopelessness of the attempts to realize the ideals to which modern economists have committed themselves. Perhaps the best illustration of this point will be found in Mr. Wells's examination of the income tax, which he hated as heartily as did Mr. Gladstone. He shows that such a tax puts a handicap on the scrupulous, encourages corruption, is expensive to collect, and, if permanent, gradually diffuses itself over the community, so that those who pay it to the Government may more than reimburse themselves.

We cannot deny, however, that Mr. Wells carried the theory of the diffusion of taxes to an extreme. He was never willing to admit that a peculiar law existed in the case of the rent of land, and laid it down that landlords could compel their tenants to share the burden of taxes on land. It may be said that modern economists have disclosed the truth that the rent of land is but a species of an extensive genus. The economic world being full of monopoly or scarcity values, some writers would frame the system of taxation accordingly. But these unearned riches are as yet so imperfectly defined as not to be fit subjects of taxation, at least to anything like the same extent as the rent of land. With that exception, therefore, the principle of the diffusion of taxes is valid, and, as Mr. Wells shows, if that principle is admitted, all attempts to fasten taxes on the particular persons supposed to be best able to pay them will be futile. The expense of collecting such taxes is invariably very great, and thus the cost of trying to make the rich relieve the poor of their burdens may eventually come back, with the burdens, upon the shoulders of the class meant to be relieved.

Probably the most thoroughly elaborated portion of this work is that which relates to the taxation of intangible personal property, and to the phenomena of double taxation in general. Here Mr. Wells was on his own ground, and showed that singular mastery of fact which made his arguments so convincing. Indeed, it would be proper to extend to his work John Mill's explanation of Adam Smith's success—the combination of lucid statement of theory with apt illustration. The same qualities appear in his examination of taxes imposed for other purposes than that of revenue, and of the principles of taxation under a free government. These chapters breathe the free spirit of the best English traditions in recognizing the liberties of the subject as of supreme importance. No one has stated more emphatically than Mr. Wells the necessity of taxes, nor has any one so well shown how governments may so lay taxes as to derive abundant revenue therefrom; but no one has more clearly demonstrated the truth that a free people strengthens and enriches a government, while despotic methods corrupt and impoverish both rulers and subjects.

The chapters relating to taxation in early times in other countries are the least valuable, and their matter is to a considerable extent a mere compilation at second hand. But we are not inclined to dwell on this or on some other serious defects in the work, remembering the circumstances under which it was written. Mr. Wells was under sentence of death before he fairly began this treatise, and the sentence was executed before he completed it. He might have lived longer had he ceased working; but he preferred to die in harness. In view of this, we are inclined to dwell on the merits of his final labors rather than on their imperfections, and these merits are so great as to justify this course. No American citizen can fail to profit by the careful study of these pages; no citizen, we might almost say, is qualified for the proper discharge of his political duties without mastering the principles here expounded. We could wish that Mr. Wells had left a monument more worthy, in its finish, of his splendid abilities; but it is sufficient to remind his countrymen of the debt of gratitude which they owe to their only great minister of finance.

La Vie Américaine ; L'Éducation et la Société. By Paul de Rousiers. Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.

Not every foreigner who writes a book on American life is as thorough in his efforts to know whereof he writes as M. de Rousiers. He makes no boast of his thoroughness, nor does he reveal his itinerary, but it would be hard to find any section of the country, or any important phase of American life, with which he has not brought himself into personal contact. He has seen the American prize-fight, much to his disgust. He thinks it too brutal for a Frenchman of the nineteenth century, though he tries to excuse it to a certain extent as a possible preparation for the rigorous life of the ranch or the farm. He has attended the fashionable balls

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of New York, "a marvellous exhibition of flowers, diamonds, and dress—an ostentatious display rather than a pleasure," and he has seen the village dance in the Far West, where tireless couples whirled to the discordant rhythm of a mediocre and equally tireless orchestra, dancing as if they had a set task to accomplish, and suggesting to him the reflection that the love for the dance which can sustain such an exercise must be a very ardent love indeed. He has studied the question of domestic service, and in the absence of a servant class content to remain in that position he finds the prime cause of many things which seem strange to the European visitor. In the West, for instance, he could never feel quite sure whether a young woman answering the ring of the door-bell was a servant, a nursery-maid, or the lady of the house, and was occasionally obliged to display a somewhat hypocritical gush of affection for the little one clinging at her side to atone for a wrong solution of the problem. In New York and Brooklyn, in turn, he finds in the same inability to get servants and keep them a leading cause of the prevalent "boarding-house habit," and, through that habit, of the tendency towards childless marriages. In the West, he concludes, people console themselves with the sacrifice of social formality to the lack of service, in the East they sacrifice the *home*. With the habit of *chewing*—tobacco everywhere in the mouths of men, gum in the mouths of girls and women—he is intensely disgusted, and small wonder.

The feature of American education which appeals to him most forcibly is the fact that the American child is educated with a view to a general adaptability to circumstances, not for a career definitely marked out in advance. The average American pupil in a school of given grade, he thinks, has a better knowledge of the subjects taught than the average French pupil of the same grade, not from better teaching, which he does not find to exist, but from the increased ardor and power of initiative in the American boy or girl. The freedom of the American girl, of course, forces itself upon his attention, but he feels perfectly assured that her habits are suited to her environment, and that the evils which would certainly result from a similar freedom in France are not found here. He takes pains to assure his countrymen that the conduct of a certain class of American girls in Paris is not representative of American society as a whole. The business success of the American people lies in their marvellous resiliency, their power of initiative, their active, creative personal energy. Throw the American business man down, and he is on his feet again at once, striving to regain his position, with no stigma because of his fall so long as he does not lie on his back and wait for some one else to help him up. In this energy and adaptability, M. de Rousiers finds the bond that makes of our population a single people, in spite of the numerous race elements which enter into its composition. If it is not this spirit that has led the foreigner to our shores, or if it does not take possession of him upon his arrival, at any rate it will make the real American of his children.

He probes the sores of our political machinery with unerring touch, but predicts a favorable outcome for the patient on the general ground of his strong vitality and recuperative energy. The contrast between the decisiveness of character manifested in great crises by the last incumbent of the Presidential chair, and the halting inconsistency of its present occupant, has not escaped his notice, and he agrees with the reported opinion of our ex-Minister to Spain that the Cuban war could have been avoided and the independence of Cuba secured through peaceful diplomacy. He has penetrated the wickedness of Tammany to the bottom, and he is correctly apprised of the relation of the Platt-Tracy mayoralty episode to the present elevation of Tammany. Such minor movements as those of "Toledo Jones" and Hazen S. Pingree have not escaped him, though for some reason or other the Apostle of the Strenuous Life finds no place in his book. On the religious side, he finds an unusual respect for sacred things, a general acceptance of the Bible as in some way an inspired revelation, but a lack, after all, in active interest. He probably overestimates the proportion of men among us who have no church membership, but he does not make the mistake of concluding that those who are not members of some church are necessarily devoid of religious belief. A sincere Catholic himself, he naturally gives careful attention to the condition and prospects of American Catholicism. As between the reactionary party, led by men still under the sway of European habits of thought, and the branch of the Church which has caught the real American spirit, his sympathies are wholly with the latter. To it, in his opinion, belongs the future, and it is a future which has gifts of great worth in store, not merely for Americans, but for the people of the Old World in their own homes as well.

On the whole, M. de Rousiers has done a good service. If he has painted us "warts and all," he has done it with a kindly hand, and in a way sure to entertain and instruct any intelligent reader, whether French or American. It will be remembered that he has already published a volume on American 'Ranches, Farms, and Factories.' We know not how much demand might be found for his work in translation, but there is no risk in the assertion that its wide reading in this country would be of great value.

Sir Archibald Campbell of Inverneill, sometime Prisoner of War in the Jail at Concord, Massachusetts. By Charles H. Walcott. Illustrated. Boston. 8vo, pp. 62.

Mr. Walcott has had the good fortune to strike an episode in the history of the Revolutionary War not before exploited, and the ability to make an interesting account of a deserving officer. It seems that in April, 1776, the Seventy-first Regiment, Highlanders, embarked at Greenock for Boston, for service as needed. Simon Fraser, M.P., was Colonel, with Sir William Erskine and Archibald Campbell as Lieutenant-Colonels, and Robert Menzies, Macdonnell, and Lamont as Majors. The regiment was loaded on seven transports, lightly armed, and arrived at Boston June 16. With providential stupidity, the English, who had evacuated the town on March 17, had neglected to notify the home authorities or to leave any cruisers off the port. The Americans were more judicious, and had four privateers ready, who skirmished with the convoy. Reinforced by the brig *Defence*, of sixteen carriage-guns and twenty swivels, and a schooner of eight carriage-guns and twelve swivels, the provincials attacked the little English fleet, which twice ran aground; and, having been fired upon from a land battery at Nantasket Roads, the commander concluded that "there could hardly be any friends of ours at Boston." After a sharp combat of an hour and a half, the British had expended every shot they had for their cannon, and surrendered to the jubilant Americans on honorable terms.

This success was something of an elephant for the Massachusetts authorities, unprovided with proper places for the confinement of prisoners not criminals. Lieut.-Col. Campbell and seven other officers were sent to Reading, and the rank and file scattered in squads. In December, 1776, the capture of our Gen. Charles Lee by the British made a great change in matters. The refusal to exchange him, and the threat to send him to England for trial as a rebel, led to orders to retaliate upon Lieut.-Col. Campbell. He was accordingly sent to the jail in Concord for safe keeping, and treated as a criminal instead of a prisoner of war. His manly protests are here printed, directed to the State authorities and to Gen. Washington. The latter stands out in fine colors, but, as he states, he could not overrule the orders of a civilian Congress. The treatment of the prisoner was only slowly alleviated, and, though never really cruel, is a proof of the incapacity of a committee of Congress to deal with military affairs. While Lee, a captive at New York, was handsomely treated by his British captors, allowed whatever diet he chose, with friends to dine with him daily, Col. Campbell was only allowed the freedom of the jailor's house. At last, in May, 1778, Campbell was exchanged for Col. Ethan Allen, after two years' captivity.

Archibald (Lieut.-Col.) Campbell, second son of James Campbell of Inverneill, Chamberlain of Argyll, and Hereditary Usher of the White Rod for Scotland, was born August 21, 1739, and in 1776 had already seen considerable service in the corps of engineers, serving in Bengal in 1767. As soon as he was released from captivity, he was put in command at New York of a force of some 3,500 men, including his Seventy-first Highlanders, and dispatched against Savannah. He arrived there December 23, and, without waiting for the arrival of his nominal chief, Gen. Prevost, Campbell proceeded to capture the colony. Returning home on leave of absence, in June, 1779, he married Amelia, daughter of Allan Ramsay, the painter, and granddaughter of the poet. In December, 1779, he was made Lieutenant-Governor of Jamaica, with the rank of Brigadier-General, and in 1782 he became Governor of the island and Major-General. In March, 1785, Campbell was made Governor of Madras, and a K.B. In 1786 he was made Commander-in-Chief of the forces on the coast of Coromandel, but was not able to satisfy the demands of his nominal employers, the East India Company. In 1789 he resigned and sailed for home with impaired health. He was again elected to Parliament, but died March 31, 1791, aged fifty-one years, leaving a widow but no children. His brothers erected a monument to his memory in the Poets' Corner of Westminster Abbey, and two portraits, presumably by Ramsay, engraved for this memoir, have preserved his likeness. The family estate seems to have passed to his nephew, Capt. James

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Campbell, and is now possessed by Lieut.-Col. Duncan Campbell.

We have felt impelled to make this brief sketch of a gallant foe as a sort of reparation for the unfair treatment which he received in the flesh. It is just to say that what befell him was mainly due to the ignorance of our ancestors as to the proper treatment of prisoners of war, and not to intentional malice. This interesting little essay is additionally embellished with an interesting portrait of Lady Campbell, a view of Inverneill House, and a drawing of the old jail at Concord, said to be the work of Col. Campbell.

Theory of Differential Equations. By Andrew Russell Forsyth. Cambridge: At the University Press; New York: Macmillan. 8vo. Vol. I., 1890, pp. 340; Vol. II., 1900, pp. 344; Vol. III., 1900, pp. 391.

The previous 'Treatise on Differential Equations' (Macmillan, 1885) of Prof. Forsyth, now Cayley's successor in Cambridge, presented the subject in an elementary way, suitable for a beginner. The present work is addressed to such as have at least a thorough elementary knowledge of the subject, and invites the attention of all who have penetrated more deeply into it. It does not, perhaps, display as much high talent as Émile Picard's treatise (which, of course, is of a different nature); but the thoroughness with which the substance of the memoirs has been worked over, quietly improved in many places, and set before the reader in a compact and easily read form, can be known only to those who will put themselves to the trouble of making the comparisons. The reader is everywhere referred to the greater memoirs, as well as to any other presentations of the several branches of the subject that may have been found specially luminous by Prof. Forsyth. Lesser papers, even in cases where they add something material, are, for the most part, passed by. For example, at the end of chapter ii. of volume ii., which is devoted to Cauchy's existence-theorem, there are fifteen references to thirteen different memoirs and treatises. Among these, of course, figures the classical work of Madame Kovalevsky; but the connected investigations of Delassus are not mentioned, nor does his name appear in the index. It is true that these, like Madame Kovalevsky's, relate mainly to partial differential equations, and are thus, in a formal view, foreign to the subject in hand. But then, would not the whole question of the existence of integrals have been advantageously set forth, at least in its outlines, connectedly?

This brings us to remark that the arrangement of Prof. Forsyth's matter seems to have been determined by the circumstance that such and such a part was ready for publication. Certainly, it was most desirable that as soon as any division of the work was ready it should be set before the mathematical world at once; nor do we intend to imply that the selection of parts to be prepared was a random one. Volume i. treats of total equations and mainly of Pfaff's problem; volumes ii. and iii., of ordinary equations not linear. Now, on the principle of treating the general before the special, it was certainly desirable to place Pfaffians thus early; and with them a great part of the subject of partial differential equations. But a considerable part of the latter subject remains, and unless Prof. Forsyth returns to it, will remain, unconsidered. There is also room for doubt as to whether it was expedient to postpone ordinary linear equations to equations not linear. However, no arrangement could have been adopted that would clean up the whole matter to be disposed of at one systematic sweep. There must inevitably be considerable odds and ends requiring a subsequent gleaning. The author proposes to treat ordinary linear equations in "an additional volume." A complete collection of all that has been contributed to that subject would make a library exceeding the entire impedimenta of many an able mathematician; and as to its being compressed into one volume, a doubt may be permitted. So, considering how much else remains over, we may hope that two, if not three, volumes are yet to be added to this admirable and beneficent work.

This is not the place to consider it more in detail; but seeing that the doctrine of differential equations is one of the most practical of the branches of mathematics, which every young man who aspires to apply exact principles to the affairs of life more than his predecessors have done, has to know at least as well as he knows how to spell, we will point out to beginners the advantage there now is in seeking their first introduction to this discipline at the hands of Forsyth's 'Treatise,' since his 'Theory' is now at hand to supplement it in directions in which they may desire to push their studies further. A better practical mastery of differential equations can be attained by beginning with Forsyth's 'Treatise,' followed by his 'Theory,' than by the aid of Jordan, Königsberger, or any other extant guide. It is a lucid and delightful work, and has the advantage of offering a careful selection of those exercises for the student which are much more needed here than in other equally advanced branches of mathematics, for the reason that there is no perfect calculus enabling one to tilt at a differential equation like a knight in armor. Strategy and experience are nowhere more demanded.

Thomas Hariot, the Mathematician, the Philosopher, and the Scholar, developed chiefly from dormant materials, with notices of his Associates, including Biographical and Bibliographical Disquisitions upon the materials of the History of 'Ould Virginia.' By Henry Stevens of Vermont, F.S.A., Student of American History, Bibliographer, and Lover of Books. London: Privately printed. 1900. [Edition of 195 copies.]

In 1877, the late Henry Stevens, to whose zeal and liberality students of American history owe so large a debt, projected an association to be called the Hercules Club, whose object was to discover and print or reprint, with conscientious editing, rare manuscripts, books, and pamphlets of importance to Anglo-American history. The name chosen is explained by the declaration in the prospectus of their intention "to scour the plain and endeavor to rid it of some of the many literary, historical, chronological, geographical, and other monstrous errors, hydras, and public nuisances that infest it." Mr. Stevens, as Secretary, undertook to edit and carry through the press ten works originally published in the years 1588-1628. The other members of the association were less energetic, and Mr. Stevens was left to do the work virtually single-handed.

The book which he first undertook was the oldest on the list, Thomas Hariot's 'Brief and True Report of the New-Found Land of Virginia,' printed in London in 1588, of which but seven copies are known to exist. The investigations which his editorial care involved disclosed so much new material relating to Hariot and to Raleigh that Mr. Stevens determined to embody this in a separate volume. On the death of Mr. Stevens in 1886, his son and literary executor, Mr. Henry N. Stevens, took up the task of completing his father's unfinished work. He found that Hariot's 'Virginia' and the Life of Hariot were practically complete, most of the sheets having been printed off, and the rest of the matter still standing in type at the Chiswick Press, where it had slept for fourteen years. The edition was necessarily a limited one, and this it is that now sees the light in exquisite miniature quartos which are gems of bookmaking, and a tasteful memorial of a man whose memory is endeared to two hemispheres.

For the incidents of the life of Virginia's earliest historian, as also for a carefully sifted account of Raleigh's efforts at colonization, we must refer our readers to the book itself. Hariot was an intimate friend of Raleigh almost from his boyhood, was a member of his first Virginia expedition of 1585, and, after his return, was his almost inseparable companion. During Raleigh's long imprisonment in the Tower, Hariot was his means for communicating with the outside world. With another state prisoner Hariot was also in confidential relations—the great and unfortunate Earl of Northumberland, who placed his library and astronomical instruments at his disposal. For Hariot was not merely a literary man; he was one of the most eminent mathematicians and astronomers of his age. He was, according to Mr. Stevens, "as great an astronomer as Galileo." Sir William Lower, the astronomer, in a letter to Hariot dated June 21, 1610 (here cited in full), begs the latter to send him more of these "cylinders [telescopes]"; and relates how "with my cylinder last winter I often observed" certain stars in Orion, and also "the seven stars in Taurus," which, "through my cylinder, I saw plainlie and far asunder." In another letter of February 6, 1610-11, Lower acknowledges the receipt of another "perspective cylinder," and mentions his observations with it. These letters make it plain that at least as early as 1609 Hariot was making telescopes, using them for astronomical observations, and furnishing them to others. The books date the first astronomical use of the telescope by Galileo in 1610, so that Mr. Stevens's claim of priority for Hariot seems to be justified. Hariot was one of Keppler's correspondents. Furthermore, he discovered improved methods in algebra, and was recognized as an equal by the greatest mathematicians of the time. He died in 1621, and was buried in the heart of London, in the little churchyard of St. Christopher, now surrounded by the Bank of England.

While a book-collector may rejoice in being the fortunate possessor of one of the copies of this delightful reprint, the present reviewer must express a regret that a work of such interest cannot have a wider circulation.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, James Lane. The Reign of Law: A Novel. Macmillan. $1.50.
Anitchkow, M. War and Labour. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Archibald, Mrs. G. Joel Dorman Steele, Teacher and Author. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.
Architectural Annual for 1900. Published under the auspices of the Architectural League of America, and edited by Albert Kelsey. Philadelphia: The Architectural Annual. $3.50.
Bacheller, I. Eben Holden: A Tale of the North Country. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Barton, W. E. Pine Knot: A Story of Kentucky Life. Appletons. $1.50.
Bernard, T. D. The Progress of Doctrine in the New Testament. 5th ed. Macmillan. $1.75.
Bligh, Lieut. W. The Mutiny on Board H. M. S. Bounty. New York: M. F. Mansfield. $1.
Brady, J. E. Tales of the Telegraph. Chicago: Jamieson-Higgins Co.
Bryce, L. Lady Blanche's Salon. 2d ed. Harpers. $1.25.
Buckingham, E. An Outline of the Theory of Thermo-dynamics. Macmillan. $1.90.
Burdett's Hospitals and Charities for 1900. London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Caddick, Helen. A White Woman in Central Africa. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Cassells.
Carey, F. K. Municipal Ownership of Natural Monopolies. Baltimore: John Murphy Co.
Chavanne, Countess L. de. Ouirda, or American Gold Regilding the Coronets of Europe. Drexel Biddle. $1.50.
Damon, P. Jonathan's New Boy. Chicago: T. S. Denison. 25c.
Edwards, H. S. Personal Recollections. Cassells.
Hill, J. A. Stories of the Railroad. Chicago: Jamieson-Higgins Co.
Jenks, Prof. J. W. The Trust Problem. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.
Le Roy, S. Logical Chart for Teaching and Learning the French Conjugation. W. R. Jenkins.
More Seven Club Tales. Edited by J. O. Austin. Providence, R. I.: The Author.
Schanz, Frida. Der Assistent. American Book Co. 35c.
Traub, Lieut. P. E. The Spanish Verb. With an Introduction on Spanish Pronunciation. American Book Co. $1.
Vorse, A. W. Laughter of the Sphinx. Drexel Biddle.

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